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ABSTRACT

Major elements of the British experience with career education from which implications for American education can be drawn are addressed in this report, which (1) reviews British research and theoretical literature pertinent to current counselor roles, changes in counselor roles since 1965, forces shaping counselor roles, relationship of counselor role to educational change, forces affecting the implementation of career(s) education and counseling, current assumptions underlying career(s) education in Britain, the role of the counselor in career(s) education, and techniques of counselor training; (2) reports on interviews with selected British educators, counselors, and counselor trainees with regard to the topics described above; and (3) contrasts the British experience in the areas suggested with that of American education during the past decade and draws implications for American education in terms of implementation of career education, counselor role, counselor training, and educational change. Twelve implications for American education are discussed in detail, with the suggestion that it may be useful for America to consider a new form of specialist in career education whose role might be as a curriculum, materials, and demonstration resource in implementing career education into various subject matter areas or through other school/community experiences. The appendix and references sections identify the sources of information on which the report is based. (TA)

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MONOGRAPHS ON CAREER EDUCATION

THE BRITISH EXPERIENCE IN EDUCATIONAL CHANGE, CAREERS EDUCATION, SCHOOL COUNSELOR ROLE AND COUNSELOR TRAINING: IMPLICATIONS FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION

ED142846

by

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March 1977

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CONTENTS

Topic	*Page*
The Scope of the Work	1
Introduction	2
Educational, Occupational and Social Factors in Britain Related to Career Education and School Counseling	2
The Philosophy and Structure of Education	3
Occupational Factors Related to Career(s) Guidance and Education	11
Social Factors Related to Careers Guidance and Education	18
Pastoral Care - (Guidance?)	20
Careers Guidance in School	24
Careers Teachers	25
Careers Officers	28
The School Counselor in Careers Education	34
The School Counselor in Britain	53
Forces Shaping the Counselor's Emergence and Role	53
What School Counselors Do	58
The School Counselor's Role in Educational Change	61
School Counselor Training	63
Issues in School Counselor Training	67
Contrasts Between British and American Experiences	69
Careers Education	69
School Counselor Role	70
School Counselor Training	71
Educational Change	72
Implications for American Education	74
Appendix	91
References	93

Careers Guidance and Education, School Counseling, and Educational Change in Great Britain: Implications for American Education

THE SCOPE OF THE WORK

This report has essentially three purposes as defined by the Scope of Work statement on which it is based. They include to:

1. review British research and theoretical literature pertinent to current counselor roles, changes in counselor role since 1965, forces shaping counselor role, relationship of counselor role to educational change, forces affecting the implementation of career(s) education and counseling, current assumptions underlying career(s) education in Britain, the role of the counselor in career(s) education and techniques of counselor training.

2. report on interviews with selected British educators, counselors, and counselor trainees with regard to the topics described in item #1.

3. contrast the British experience in the areas suggested with that of American education during the past decade and draw implications for American education in terms of implementation of career education, counselor role, counselor training, and educational change.

Since the three purposes of the report are both global and interactive, it is necessary to address separately the major elements of the British experience from which implications for American education can be drawn. The Table of Contents identifies these.

It is hoped that the three purposes identified are met in the several sections of the report which are outlined below. The appendix and reference sections identify the sources of information on which the report is based. The majority of the information gathering and analysis on which the report is based occurred during the period of June 1 to July 31, 1976 during which time the author served as Visiting Fellow, the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling, Cambridge, England.

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade, career education and, indeed, career guidance have assumed considerable prominence in American educational philosophy and practice. In so doing, they have spearheaded reassessments of the role of school counselors and their training as well as the need for change in American education broadly conceived.

In the five years since Career Education has been identified as a priority of the U.S. Office of Education, certain assumptions, concepts, and practices have begun to become accepted as its sum and substance. As this process unfolds, however, it may be helpful to compare the American experience in evolving career education with that of Great Britain. While somewhat different in their economic, governmental, and political structures both nations can be described as highly industrialized or, indeed, postindustrial societies. In addition, they have shared economic upturns and downturns since World War II, and they have each sought educational change responsive to broader social and economic changes in their respective societies. Both have introduced career(s) education and school counselors as agents of the educational changes sought. Throughout this report, the British term careers education will be retained when reference is made to Britain; career education if the reference is to America.

EDUCATIONAL, OCCUPATIONAL, AND SOCIAL FACTORS IN BRITAIN RELATED TO CAREER(S) EDUCATION AND SCHOOL COUNSELING

Although it is difficult to identify which factor is preeminent in effecting a climate conducive to career(s) education and counseling in Britain, it is clear that many factors have been influential in this respect. They include changes in the philosophy and structure of education, occupational shifts, and changes in social attitudes. Indeed, the 1960's saw many debates in Britain which had direct implications for career guidance and school counseling. Questions were raised about the fairness and the appropriateness of educational provision both at the secondary and tertiary levels. Concern had been expressed specifically about the early age (11+) at which restrictions upon opportunities to benefit from education were imposed and the lack of educational opportunity for the child who attaches little value to traditional academic development. As a result of these observations, the 1960's gave birth to many reports advocating changes in the curriculum and the organization of secondary schooling.

Increased attention to careers guidance, mental health, and counselling[1] in the schools, while central recommendations for change, were not the only developments of this decade. Many other forms of educational expansion also were stimulated by the needs of an expanding economy and as ways of

[1] The British spelling will be retained in the report only within the context of a British quote or reference.

facilitating the development of individual aptitudes, interests, and aspirations. These recommendations collectively created an atmosphere for educational change which was reflected both in educational philosophy and structure.

The Philosophy and Structure of Education

Since 1965, British education has been implementing two processes in parallel which have considerable importance for the focus of this report. One is the phasing out of the eleven plus (11+) examination and the second is the creation of comprehensive secondary schools to replace the segregated system of grammar schools (for college preparatory students) and modern schools (for those not qualified for college preparation). A related factor to each of these is the raising of the school-leaving age from 14 to 15 and presently to 16.

From 1944 until 1965, the eleven plus examination given to students at the end of primary school was used to select roughly one in four of primary school leavers for academic education in publicly-provided college preparatory schools (Avent, 1975). The remaining three-quarters of the student population were destined to remain in school until they were of age to enter vocational training, either formal or as apprentices, take a job, enter the armed forces or other pursuits available to them in the adult world. The choices available to students upon school leaving were restricted primarily to those opportunities related to the stream one was assigned by the 11+ examination. The restrictions upon future educational and occupational opportunities as a function of 11+ streaming was and is not dramatically different from that related to restrictions imposed upon American secondary students depending upon whether the college preparatory, vocational education, or general curriculum is chosen, except that the streaming occurred earlier and was not even theoretically the choice of the student.

As the eleven plus examination has been phased out, the need for segregated schools for those with aspiration and tested qualifications toward university or not has been diminished. Theoretically, it is now not a matter of being *selected* for a particular curricular stream but rather one of *choosing* one's educational pattern and goals as well as one's occupational focus. Since school ability ranges which were previously physically separated at the secondary school level are now being mixed in one location, the range of educational offerings in a comprehensive school is likely to be larger than either that found in a grammar or a modern school previously. In essence the answer to what do I want from life? and How will I achieve such goals? rests with the individual not with the eleven plus examination. As a result, the potential choice options available to all persons increase, the personal responsibility for choice grows, curriculum specializations increase, schools frequently become larger and more impersonal,

and the requirement for information relevant to personal preferences, abilities, and options increases. In addition, with the school leaving age raised to 16, some of the socialization of the young which had occurred in early entrance to work is now transferred back to the school to deal with.

A further factor confusing the selection versus choice dilemma for young people is the broadening of further and of higher education opportunities in Britain. From a traditional and limited series of ancient (e.g., Oxford and Cambridge) and provincial universities (e.g., Lancaster) there has emerged rapidly a somewhat chaotic mix (Watts, 1972) of "Red Brick" universities (e.g., Reading), new universities (e.g., Exeter), technical universities (e.g., Bradford), polytechnics (e.g., North Eastern London), colleges of education, colleges of higher education, colleges of further education (nondegree, technician oriented), home study, etc., which confounds the choice problem even as it increases educational opportunity.

The phasing out of the eleven plus examination has not removed all constraints on choice; rather it has postponed them in some ways. While students are less categorically streamed during the secondary school experience than was true in the past, the secondary school itself is still dominated by examinations. One University psychiatrist has recently dubbed the secondary schools as 'examination factories' (The Times Educational Supplement, July 16, 1976). Indeed, at age 16 (roughly the tenth grade in American terms) students take either CSE or O level GCE examinations, the outcomes of which have considerable impact on one's future, educationally and occupationally. The CSE (Certificate of Secondary Education) is usually taken by students not intending to go on to colleges and universities but the scores obtained do have pertinence to entry into colleges of further education and some occupations. Indeed, a CSE pass at level 1 is considered equivalent to an O level pass in the same subject. The O level GCE's (Ordinary Level, General Certificate of Education) in combination with the A level GCE's (usually taken two years later at 18) are nationally validated and form the basis of the entry requirement for universities, other further education, and most professions.

The fact is that the CSE's, O and A level GCE's and other examinations such as those related to ONC/OND or HNC/HND which are awarded in vocational training courses or colleges of further education are subject related, require specific choices of educational pattern to be pursued and the results are very important in determining the future opportunities available to the individual. This complex of tests is undergoing considerable scrutiny at the moment by several groups. The most persistent argument is that the CSE, and O and A levels GCE's should be combined into one end of secondary school examination with different cut-off scores being used for different purposes.

The raising of the school leaving age to 16 has markedly effected the numbers of school leavers who take the various examinations. Where 10 years ago it was not unusual for the majority of students to leave school at age 14+ without obtaining any secondary school examination passes at any level (67 percent in 1963-64), during 1973-74, 80 percent of school leavers attempted either CSE or "O" level examination (DES, 1976). Roughly 20 percent of school leavers in Britain go on to full-time further education which designation includes degree courses (predominately persons with A level passes), teacher training courses (O's and A's), GCE courses (persons with O's and some CSE passes), other further education (O's and CSE's). The remaining 80 percent enter employment or attempt to do so. In point of fact, Britain is experiencing a labor force which is rapidly increasing its educational qualifications (credentials) while the occupational structure is highly vulnerable to rising unemployment and economic retrenchments.

Roberts (1971, p. 46) is more critical than many of the examination system when he says:

> In Britain, whilst young people are still at school, there is little scope for their ambitions to influence their educational attainments. The educational process itself contains built-in mechanisms of selection that operate independently of the wishes of individual pupils. Traditionally pupils have been allocated to different types of secondary schools in accordance with assessments of their ability made at the age of eleven. With the emergence of the comprehensive school, this particular type of selection is being abandoned in many parts of the country. Selective mechanisms, however, remain built into the forms of comprehensive education that are emerging in Britain. It is normal for pupils in comprehensive schools to be streamed according to their apparent abilities, and the opportunities available for any pupils to take the various public examinations will depend upon the stream into which he has been directed. As children progress through the emergent system of comprehensive education, the system itself is continuing to assess their abilities and grade them accordingly. Consequently the qualifications with which school leavers eventually emerge from the educational system, and which structure their vocational prospects are the outcomes of processes of selection that are institutionalized in the educational process itself.

Roberts' point is supported by the debate on creating one Certificate of Extended Education which combines the CSE and GCE's into a common system. Mrs. Irene Chaplin of the Association of Metropolitan Authorities at the debate on this issue indicated that a postponement of the new system would continue the segregation of children into GCE sheep and CSE goats (Times Educational Supplement, July 16, 1976). Within this context, the

Schools Council (1975) has provided evidence to show how substantial are the grounds for dissatisfaction with the present examining arrangements. They report that many students follow an A-level course with little hope of success, while also striving to improve their O-level qualifications. Figures for 1970 indicated that nearly one-third of those who set out to take an A-level course either failed completely or passed in only one subject. Frequently, students pursued O level courses in an attempt to gain some form of educational qualification and because there was simply no other available alternative. The Schools Council goes on to report that there is a large number of students who stay for a sixth form education (either one or two years after the traditional school-leaving age of 16) even though the available options are not designed to suit their interests. In this regard, the Tory group in Parliament recently advocated slashing sixth forms and stopping comprehensive schools at age 16 so that sixth forms would serve only students with academic interests and that they would not be used for vocational purposes (Times Educational Supplement, July 23, 1976).

In sum, the current debate in Britain about the examination system and the merger of the CSE and GCE's into a Certification of Extended Education is at its root a reflection that if there is to be a comprehensive secondary school system, the examination system must be tailored to that end. Rather than be a subject-centered examination restricted principally to general or core education emphasis, it needs to include a broader set of skills and knowledge as well as possibly a different format than paper and pencil essays and multiple choice questions. Beyond these shifts, however, there is a growing recognition in both secondary schools and colleges of further education of the need for effective educational and careers guidance. Whether a student is in a secondary school or college or even on a day release program from employment, it must be established through the help of careers specialists of some type that the curriculum followed is entirely appropriate to the goals being sought.

That there is a lack of help for students in Britain in systematic educational planning at the moment is rather poignantly illustrated by a student's letter published in the Times Educational Supplement (Phillipson, 1976). The letter follows:

> I have just filled in a form which will probably decide my future. This is the form which former pupils would recognize - the form with all those slots in it. In these slots you write down the subjects you "want" to take for O level of CSE. I use the word want rather hesitatingly, since you are given four lines of subjects and must choose one subject from each line, and one reserve subject from any line. With the three compulsory subjects of English language, literature and mathematics, these make up the eight we are allowed to take.

My mother and I had terrible trouble trying to fit the subjects in the slots, especially as four of my chosen subjects occurred in one line. We also had difficulty over another line, from which I was unable to pick one subject which I liked.

We were given beforehand pamphlets about the lovable twosome, GCE and CSE, but unfortunately that did not seem to help when it came down to making the choice.

Attracted by the blurb about assessment, projects, course work, non-examination courses and the like, most of us decided CSE sounded easier and more relaxed.

So off we go to our loving and doting parents, interrupting a discussion on how we are going to be brain surgeons, and ask if we can take CSE mathematics and biology. . . .

Instant chaos - "but, darling, you're so good at them." "CSE is for the others when you go comprehensive" "Aren't you going to do A levels, a degree?" - and so on.

So we write down GCE, with its "fast rate of work to a high standard," "regular addition of a large amount of homework," etc., our feeble cries of "CSE grade 1 is equal to a GCE pass and I'm sure I could get that" remaining unheard.

I wonder if the same sort of thing is going on in the secondary modern children's homes, only the other away around. The intelligent child goes to Dad: "I'd like to have a go at GCE now we're going to the high school." And Dad says "Whatever for? Why try something you might not get? All your friends are doing the other thing. What's good enough for them is good enough for you."

Of course the biggest difficulty is finding out what you want to be, so that you pick the right subjects. Our school was very good about this, putting on a careers meeting, but I felt, wandering round the tables with their labels saying teaching, nursing, vet, the law, like someone in a hat shop wanting to buy but unable to try anything on.

After that, filling in the form at home was like choosing an outfit to match the hat I had not been able to buy.

When the form is finally handed in, the helpless agony begins. . . .

"Did I take the right subjects to be a nurse - if I want to? If I want to be a librarian, can I use the same subjects?"

So what is the end of this two-year uphill slog? An eight O level genius, or a nobody who worked hard for two years but did badly in the examination because of a headache or overanxiety?

Is it fair to children to present them with an important decision to make, affecting their future, and then after two years judge them on a few hours' work, and maybe withhold from them the certificate which opens the door to the next step in their career? I think that all children from 14 to 16 should be taught on a continuous assessment basis, whatever their course. This would mean no more anxiety, sticky hands, or the fear that all that work might be for nothing as far as your future is concerned.

Another shift in educational structure related to careers work occurred as a function of The Employment and Training Act of 1973. That legislation mandated every local educational authority (essentially equivalent to an American county unit or a large city) to have a careers service. From 1948 until 1973 this had been optional with about 70 percent of the LEA's including its own career service. Thus, many of the placement and other careers guidance tasks formerly done by the Youth Employment Service, under the direct supervision of the Department of Employment, were now placed under the supervision and responsibility of local education officers. Links with and advice as well as funding have continued to come from the Department of Employment but with less formal control than previously. More will be said about this later but this shift has meant somewhat more attention to as well as conflict about careers work within education than had previously been true.

In addition to the structural shifts in education which have been identified, various philosophical issues and criticisms pertaining to education and particularly its attention to careers matters have been raised in Britain. Montford (1975) after visiting the United States to study career education suggested that most of the criticisms of the American educational system contained in U.S.O.E. documents giving a rationale for career education could apply to the British educational system as well. In particular, he stressed the following shortcomings in Britain education which lay a base for careers education.

a. Too many young people leave school without the basic academic skills they require to adopt to today's rapidly changing society. Comments from industralists would seem to support this. Standards of basic literacy and numeracy are, in many cases, not high enough to meet either the needs of industry, or those of the individual in society. They also fail to

meet the needs of students attending further education courses and increase the need for the growing number of remedial teachers in technical colleges.

b. Too many young people fail to see the relevance of their education to their life after school. For too many, education appears as a theoretical academic exercise divorced from life after school. Whilst the range of GCE and CSE subjects is beginning to offer a broader choice of subject option, the very nature of a subject-based curriculum tends to produce isolated packages of unco-ordinated knowledge. Those studying academic subjects are probably well enough served, but many students require a more applied and practical approach for successful learning. Traditional classroom teaching methods have led to a curriculum in which students are exposed to a maximum of information but a minimum of experience.

c. The education system best meets the needs of that minority of students who will some day become college graduates. The British school system is still largely dominated by the academic tradition and the universities. Many schools tend to give preference to the GCE courses, partly because the community and industry value GCE as desirable qualifications. The GCE courses were originally intended as preparation for young people who were to go to university and they probably meet their needs adequately. Their application to those with different purposes is unsatisfactory and the responsibility for their misuse in this way, rests equally with industry and commerce for putting value on them and with the education system for not providing an alternative course better suited to the needs of both students and employees. The introduction of CSE went some way to providing an alternative but it is unfortunate that the schools themselves have, in many cases, tended to copy the academic traditions of GCE while industry and commerce have tended to place too much importance on the attainment of the Grade 1 GCE equivalent.

d. There has developed an increased emphasis on school for school's sake. This aspect has been highlighted by the reactions of many schools to the raising of the school leaving age in continuing to offer the same types of courses which have not been entirely successful with many students in earlier years. . . . In short the natural reactions of the education system to the needs of young people whom it already failed, is to give yet more purposeless education. Some young people being totally unprepared for anything else but yet more education, retreat again into the only world they know. Others react by withdrawing from the education system completely. The similarities between this and the general education track in America are self-evident and we should perhaps take note of the lack

of success of the California schools with students following an education with no clear objectives or apparent relevance.

e. The general public has not been given an adequate role in the formulation of education policy. The gaps in communication which exist between the various sectors of the education system, between the education system and the employers, and between the education system and the parents, give rise to concern, particularly as there is no adequate mechanism for co-ordinating the system to meet the needs of the community or of young people. Some method must be found of making the education system more responsive to the requirements of society, and, in particular, ways must be found of making secondary schools more directly accountable to parents and to the community for their performance.

Montford goes on to argue that preparation for career is a legitimate objective for education and that a new secondary curriculum should be developed for those students who are not proceeding into higher education. It should be noted here that vocational education in the American sense is haphazardly provided in British schools if provision is made at all. However, because of the rise in the school-leaving age, some schools have tried to introduce courses with substantial vocational content although the trained staff with relevant industrial experience has not typically been available. Most vocational and industrial subjects are offered in Colleges of Further Education or technical colleges after the age of 16. In fact most students enter work at age 16 with some having day-release provisions to leave their employment a day a week to attend theoretical classes in a technical institute or college. As will be noted later, then, most advocates of careers education in Britain are arguing for a pre-vocational form of education the emphasis of which is more related to the stages of awareness and exploration than to preparation in the American models. With the lack of a series of vocational training options available most students follow subjects which lead to CSE or GCE examinations and are principally academic subject-matter oriented.

Montford has further argued that the new curriculum he proposes should be articulated with the primary curriculum on the one hand and with the further education curriculum and the needs of industry and commerce on the other. The curriculum as he envisions it should include not only technical knowledge, but also details of careers, lifestyles, and industrial attitudes and orientations, career advice and information as well as job placement. All students whether taking academic or other courses should undertake on an individual basis properly organized programs of exploratory work experience during their last two years at school. As the reader will note later, work experience is becoming

a very significant educational strategy in British schools and what Montford proposed is being incorporated into careers education models.

Occupational Factors Related to Career(s) Guidance and Education

It seems clear that in Britain the attention given to the broad sweep of careers guidance in schools during the 1960's, and to careers education more particularly, has been influenced by considerations of manpower development. For example, the Department of Education and Science (1965) has linked directly the progress of technological change in Britain with the character of its education in such statements as:

> The professions, industry and commerce change and diversify, demanding ever more knowledgeable and skillful workers. The schools in their turn have developed more varied courses to enable a greater range of pupils to make the most of their abilities. . . . (DES, 1965, p. 76)

This position paper then went on to outline the importance of increasing the systematic provision of careers guidance in secondary schools.

As Craft (1973) has pointed out, as a society continues its process of industrialization, it tends to replace workers in the 'primary sector' (agriculture, fishing, mining) with those in the 'secondary sector' (manufacturing). These shifts are also accompanied by growth in the 'tertiary sector' (transportation, distribution, banking, the professions and other service occupations). Such shifts obviously have direct implications for both the type of education and the amount of education a nation provides and they add to the complexity of choices available to people, giving a persuasive rationale for the provision of careers guidance.

Like the United States, British trends in the occupational structure reflect a long term decline in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs as well as a general shift from the manual to the administrative, clerical, and technical or non-manual groups. With such shifts has come a rise in educational qualifications required for an increasing number of occupations.

As the direct ties between education and work, or more precisely technological progress, have become apparent, criticisms of education's provision for preparing students for work roles rather than academic pursuits have multiplied. Most of the emphasis of these criticisms were captured in Montford's observations cited in the last section. However, several other perspectives are worth noting.

A major concern now occupying the British government is the decreasing numbers of job opportunities for young workers and the rising unemployment rate for this group. Approximately 750,000 young people leave school in Great Britain each year, more than half of them at the minimum school leaving age of 15. Some 600,000 enter the labor market directly and half of these receive no further education and little or no systematic training. In June 1976, some 209,000 plus of this year's school-leavers were unemployed, the highest number since World War II. Although the under 20 age group has represented something below 8 percent of the labor force since 1972, they have accounted for 12 or more percent of the total unemployment in Britain. Just as in America, the colored populations of young people experience unemployment in greater magnitude than caucasian young people, unemployment among all young people is rising steadily. While the rising rate of unemployment among the young undoubtedly reflects the rising unemployment rate in the country at large, it has caused questions to be raised about whether school leavers are prepared to handle the jobs which exist or to participate in apprenticeships available. For example, one article recently published by the Confederation of British Industries (CBI, 1975) has indicated that in the midst of unemployment, there are shortages of skilled workers in engineering, construction, and allied industries related to the exploration of North Sea oil, the growing petrochemical, steel, gas and electricity supply industries and increasing work in shipbuilding yards. Other groups have begun to argue that if there is not enough market generated demand to secure employment for everyone who wants to work, then there must be moves toward job creation in other socially useful activities (Mukheyee, 1976).

The government has recently embarked upon a massive program of job creation and work-experience schemes for unemployed young people from 16 to 19 in which employers will receive a special recruitment subsidy for taking on extra school leavers and for providing them work experience and some on-the-job training. Additional training courses are being developed at skill centres. And, school-leavers are being provided a subsidy for being involved in these projects rather than going on unemployment compensation (Times Educational Supplement, July 23, 1976). More discussion of this scheme will be provided in the implication section.

In a major report provided by a working party of the National Youth Employment Council in 1974 (Department of Employment, 1974), several influential observations were made about the training of school-leavers for work. Among the major findings of the report is the emphasis which employers are placing upon the 'motivation' of young people. In particular, the evidence seems to be that a large minority of unemployed young people have attitudes which, whatever their cause or justification, are not acceptable to employers and act as a hindrance to young people in securing jobs. The Working Party is

particularly concerned that very little seems to be done by schools and other social institutions to deal with this problem. In this regard, they also point up the inadequate provision in schools for careers education as a way of helping young people to "enter the working world knowing something about it, conscious of the attitudes likely to be expected, alert and interested in their new environment."

Perhaps the most wide-ranging report bearing upon the relationship of young people and work is that of the Training Services Agency in 1975. In this report, the Training Services Agency of the Manpower Services Commission analyzed the vocational preparation of young people and offered a variety of perspectives on the implications for education and training of work. In line with the British pattern that vocational training occurs after the person leaves secondary school, on-the-job, or in apprenticeships under the control of employers and labor organizations, the Training Service Agency distinguishes training for a particular job from the process of familiarizing the young entrant with the world of work and with the particular occupation he has joined. The latter is considered to be the preparatory phase which falls under the school's purview rather than be delayed until after the job entrant has chosen a role and entered into it. Indeed, the schools are subtly criticized in this report because they do not help sort out the implications of committing oneself to apprenticeships, the major form of vocational training in Britain. Thus, the report contends that there is a large wastage factor of young people who find a place in an apprenticeship but then decide they have made a false start, thereupon finding it difficult to enter other comparable jobs where recruitment is normally straight from school or, in the case of long-term training in a different trade, where there are maximum entry ages.

The TSA then goes on to more specifically outline the problems and proposals concerned with preparation for work in schools. They start from the premise that:

> If young people are to choose jobs for which they are suited and to settle successfully in employment they need to be given adequate information and guidance about the possibilities open to them and to have acquired some understanding of what life at work will be like. Some schools already do a good deal to help their pupils in both these ways, but in many others less has been attempted and achieved.

The TSA report further argues that attempts to get youngsters to think realistically about the world of work are likely to be ineffective if they are made too soon.

In its report the TSA strongly urges changes in both the school's role in preparing students for awareness of work roles and of the employer's role in induction and in work climate. In particular, the report observes that:

> It is becoming increasingly important to help young people to develop an awareness of the world of work and of the ways in which wealth is produced and used by society. In recent years the social environment in a number of schools, with more emphasis on personal development and less on formal instruction, has been diverging from that still encountered in most work situations, where the need to achieve results in conformity with defined standards and to do so within fixed time-limits calls for different patterns of behavior. The contrast is more marked where changes in industrial processes have reduced the scope for individual reaction and initiative. The methods and disciplines of school and work certainly differ in a variety of ways, but they are not necessarily in conflict. Employers do, however, need to think about how they can best respond to the qualities of maturity and independence which their young employees are now perhaps more likely to display, while for their part the schools should be able to do more to prepare young people for the patterns of behavior that will be expected of them at work.

The TSA report, like others cited, also emphasizes that employers still regularly comment that numbers of "young people are leaving school without an adequate grasp of literacy and numeracy skills. . . this may be caused partly by an increasing need for these skills in employment and partly by the fact that abler youngsters now stay on longer at school and enter employment at a higher level." Other specific areas addressed by the report include:

> *Careers guidance and familiarisation with industry.* Because it is so important to develop awareness of job possibilities, the fact that more attention has been paid in recent years to careers education and guidance in schools is to be welcomed. But the improvement has been uneven and in general the coverage remains inadequate. A recent survey (*Careers Education in Secondary School,* Department of Education and Science Survey 18, HMSO, 1972) found that although 94 percent of a large sample of schools had at least one teacher designated as careers teacher, in nearly half the schools the total time allotted was equivalent to no more than 20 percent of the one teacher's time. For the 14 plus year, less than half the schools provided careers education for all pupils and 28 percent did not provide it at all.

An underlying difficulty about the provision of effective careers teaching arises from the fact that teachers generally lack knowledge of industry and commerce. Schemes have been in existence for several years to introduce

teachers to industry, to have teachers spend time working in firms so as to gain first-hand experience and a better general understanding of industry. However, only about 18 percent of schools had released at least one teacher for a short period in industry.

Work observation and work experience courses. As part of these courses, young people visit employers' premises, but the purpose is to help to familiarize them with working life rather than to provide guidance in making career choices. Observation courses are at present more common than experience courses because the latter raise problems of organization and supervision which cannot always be readily overcome. The range of premises visited varies widely from one area to another, as does the extent of current provision of these facilities.

Linked courses. These courses enable young people at school to spend time at a college of further education and give them some insight into the work environment and the range of occupations open to them on leaving school. Such courses appear to be a useful way of easing the transition from the school to the working environment.

Careers Service. The shortcomings of careers education in schools make the work of the careers officer more difficult. The Careers Service is spread thinly over the school population and because of this it often has less influence on job choice than parents, relatives, and friends. Careers officers themselves would regard it as their main objective to guide young people to understand their own abilities and potential and on this basis to make sensible career choices. Many pupils, however, see the Careers Service mainly as a placing service rather than a source of advice on future careers. In fact, the emphasis on the placing role has diminished as the guidance function has expanded, and the Service now places a smaller proportion of school leavers than it did in the early 1950's.

There is a need to increase career officers' knowledge of industry and commerce. . . . They need time to maintain contact with a variety of firms so that they can bring their current knowledge of industry to bear on the advice they give young people.

The Careers Service might find greater success if it were to concentrate on those pupils at all levels of academic ability who are most in need of help and advice rather than just spreading its resources thinly.

There is also scope for an increase in industry's links with schools and with the whole process of advice about careers and jobs. . . . In Scotland this has been achieved through a structure of local schools industry liaison

committees. Practical progress seems most likely to be made on a relatively local basis where different ITB's and employers can develop contacts with careers teachers and careers officers.

Even with the improvements in methods of preparing young people for working life, the differences between the cultures of school and work cannot be completely reconciled. Starting work will always involve a big problem of adjustment for young people, but it can and should be made more manageable.

Whatever improvements may be made in how young people are prepared for working life, their experience in the early stages at work will still be vital. Instruction limited to a general talk or a tour of the work place, which is all many young people get but some do not even get that which shows scant awareness of what they really need. . . . the feeling that he does not much matter to the firm is likely to discourage the young applicant from any sense of commitment to and satisfaction in his work, and to encourage thoughts of change to another job. . . .What is needed is a personnel policy specifically for young entrants which recognizes the special problems they face in the transition to the new environment of adult working life at a time when they are also experiencing the personal problems of growing up.

The TSA indicates that the following lines of development need to be pursued:

- widely-based courses of a recognized national standard need to be developed to enable young people to undergo vocational preparation off the job. The courses would indicate knowledge relevant to jobs within broad occupational bands and their length should depend on the time required to enable young people to absorb the content - say, in many cases, three months.

- gateway courses should be available as pre-entry courses or as part of the initial training given by an employer.

- a departure from the principle that each employer pays for the training he provides will be needed if this initiative is to succeed.

- the content of induction programmes will vary according to circumstances but they will usually need to cover the following:

  a. knowledge of industry at the working environment
  b. awareness of how work differs from the school environment to which the young people are accustomed

c. knowledge of aspects of adult working life such as PAYE, national insurance, etc., which adults often take for granted
d. communication skills
e. acceptance into a working group as a full member, and understanding of the give and take necessary to gain acceptance
f. help in adjusting to the new way of life at work
g. the opportunity to develop self-reliance and maturity
h. advice and assistance when wanted
i. a tangible welcome to working life and a feeling of being needed
j. confirmation that they have made the right job choice; and advice, on direction to sources of advice, when they have obviously made the wrong choice.

—as regards the more specifically vocational elements in 'gateway' courses it may prove to be helpful to think of three broad categories of skill:

a. employer-specific job skills (e.g., learning to operate an individually developed and possibly idiosyncratic storage or filing system)
b. non-employer-specific job skills (e.g., using a cash register)
c. non-employer-specific general skills (e.g., using the telephone, understanding the importance of hygiene or the main feature of the distribution system)

—much of the general content for gateway courses could be regarded as an appropriate element of secondary education from the age of 14 onwards. . . . The question now is whether those aspects of general school education which have vocational relevance should be extended and whether without in any way contemplating actual job training in the schools, a directly vocational element should be included in the curriculum as has been recommended from time to time.

—It might also be argued that the development of suitable courses by employers, rather than within schools, would have the advantage of helping young people to feel that their employers were genuinely concerned about them and their progress in employment.

—The practices in England differ sharply from other countries in Western Europe where more and more systematic training is given for occupations which in this country are regarded as unskilled or semi-skilled. In Germany systematic training arrangements cover perhaps 70 percent of the jobs into which young people go. In Sweden 70 percent of young people take courses lasting between two and four years which include vocational education courses; only 10 percent go straight into jobs and receive no vocational education at all.

–In summary, the TSA report indicates that the issues discussed in this paper raise fundamental questions about the rationale of the present division of responsibility for vocational preparation between the state and employers - the general principle holds that the state pays for education and employers pay for training. . . . there is often no very cogent reason why employers pay for preparing some young people for work while the state pays for others. Moreover, the resource devoted by the state to young people who continue in full-time education are immense in comparison with those it devotes to young people entering employment.

–One approach, inspired by the recently introduced French system of a right to release for training (which in this case is largely provided in an educational context), would be to give all employees a right to a certain period of release for training or education, to be taken in a time and in a form of their choice, with the cost of the training or education borne by the State, but with the employer required to continue to pay wages and to offer continued employment if the employee so wished.

As is shown in other sections of this report, many of the TSA observations and recommendations are shared by other groups. The collective impact is that schools are being pushed toward more careers work primarily defined in a fairly narrow sense of the term. As will be seen, there are simultaneous efforts underway from other sources to broaden the concept of careers work or careers education in schools in respect to a number of social factors which are descriptive of British education and the broader society.

Social Factors Related to Careers Guidance and Education

Since World War II a process of democratization of opportunity in Britain has been emerging rapidly. Traditional restraints upon admission to higher education or the professions and management associated with social class or arbitrary streaming (e.g., 11+ examinations) have been significantly reduced. Thus correlations between family background and the social, educational, and occupational levels to which an individual can aspire have become lower and more equalitarian in their thrust.

As a result, larger proportions of students are remaining in secondary education or seeking post-secondary education than ever before. A major national "grants system" of financial aid determined by family income levels permits students to choose to attend any University in the country including Oxford and Cambridge if they have the educational qualifications and to be financially supported in doing so. Indeed, the proportion of school leavers with 'O' and 'A' level qualifications for further and/or higher education or entrance

into the technical occupations and the professions nearly doubled between 1960 and 1970 (Central Statistical Office, 1971).

This phenomenon of staying in school longer and obtaining higher educational qualifications for either further education or occupational entrance has also caused rising expectations among the young at a time when the British economy has been experiencing high rates of unemployment and major inflationary pressures. Just as in America, concerns have been expressed about the frustrations of school-leavers who are prepared for but unable to obtain suitable employment. Job creation schemes are being advanced. Questions about the political wisdom of supporting more and more education for large proportions of the population when the occupational structure seems to require more specialized training, not simply more academic education, have been raised. In addition, an elaborate welfare system of unemployment benefits provides at least some disincentive for persons to continue to seek suitable work if initial attempts are unsuccessful. Such a system also adds to inflationary pressures while providing fiscal support to many persons who are unable to be productive.

Equalitarian pressures in the society are also associated with the rise of comprehensive schools. Not only are curricular opportunities being broadened but students from the whole spectrum of social classes are being mixed together at the secondary school level. Previously, the correlation between social class and attendance at a grammar school (secondary level college preparatory preparation) was high. Admission to comprehensive schools is non-selective for the most part. Thus students of different social classes are no longer as physically separated by the schools they attend nor in the attitudes they are likely to be exposed to. Obviously, the private school network which retains the heritage of the grammar school tradition is still alive and serves the aspirations for small classes and rigorous college preparation which most comprehensive schools can not. But inflation, high tax rates, and other economic pressures are conspiring against the ability of most Britons to afford private schooling at the secondary school level where the grants system does not operate as it does in higher education.

Daws (1976) has pointed out additional social changes in the 1960's which have given rise to counseling and to careers work. He suggests that this period saw the opening up of British society, a new permissiveness and tolerance among people, a live and let live attitude, greater respect for individuality and the uniqueness of individual people. In addition, he indicates that "the young found a cultural identity of their own and adolescence ceased to be merely a grim transition."

Such concerns about individual uniqueness gave rise, according to Daws, to a new consciousness of mental health responsibility, to more effective pastoral care structures in schools, to specialized guidance roles, and to the development of systematic curricula in sex and health education, moral education, social education as well as careers education. In sum, these growing social and educational perspectives on adolescence and the transitional difficulties experienced by this group in its movement to adulthood challenged the traditional view that education is primarily concerned with intellectual development and the daily witness to Christian virtues. It laid the base, in short, for a much wider educational agenda than before. Certainly, the pastoral care structure and its changing shape is a result of a new consciousness in British education of the emotional as well as intellectual realms.

PASTORAL CARE–(Guidance?)

In attempting to understand the place of careers work in schools, it is necessary first to understand the concept of pastoral care. A British tradition, pastoral care is variously defined. This seems to be so because it is more a product of natural growth than of carefully planned cultivation. It gathers together a loosely related family of concepts that have evolved and changed over the years (Daws, 1976a). Usually it has been defined as those aspects of education which are outside of instruction, non-academic. These lines are increasingly being called into question by various observers. There are an increasing number of authors and education critics who are saying that in a contemporary society, there can be no pastoral/academic split.

In global terms, pastoral care deals with the personal and social welfare of pupils. Morland (1974) has suggested that pastoral care means looking after the total welfare of the pupil. Such a goal can then be broken down into several separate educational aims in its own right. He cites them as including (p. 10)

–to assist the individual to enrich his personal life

–to help prepare the young person for educational choice

–to offer guidance or counselling, helping young people to make their own decisions–by question and focus and by information where appropriate

–to support the subject teaching

–to assist the individual to develop his or her own lifestyle and to respect that of others

–to maintain an orderly atmosphere in which all this is possible.

For reasons cited in the previous sections (e.g., the rise, size, and diversity of comprehensive schools, economic and employment uncertainties), effective pastoral care has increasingly been seen as an extremely important aspect of British education. Indeed, the term 'guidance' is being used by some writers (Howden & Dowson, 1973; Daws, 1976b) as essentially synonymous in meaning with the historical term 'pastoral care.' Daws suggests that the term guidance be used "as a generic label, an umbrella, that covers all the means whereby a school or college identifies and responds to the individual needs of pupils or students, whether the means be within or drawn from outside the institution and whether the needs be psychological or physiological and material" (p. 3). Scotland is, in fact, developing a class of special teachers called guidance teachers--a term not generally used in England. The guidance teacher usually combines personal counseling, careers and curriculum work; the variety of tasks usually comprising pastoral care.

Until approximately the middle 1960's, pastoral care had been seen as a function of the individual teacher to carry on in whatever way and with whatever resources might be available. Training for this role was not typically part of teacher preparation. Indeed, probably in the majority of cases, pastoral care was seen as acting "in loco parentis," steering children toward choices or behaviors considered to be for their own good, principally adjustment rather than developmentally oriented.

Today the pastoral care system of a secondary school is likely to be seen as involving a variety of persons within the school and agencies outside the school. In fact, the term 'pastoral care team' or 'guidance team' is used quite frequently by Britons in conversation and in the literature. Among persons within a school considered to be involved with pastoral care as an aspect of their role would be head teachers/head masters, deputy headmaster/senior mistress, heads of departments of facilities, heads of houses/years, form tutors/subject teachers, school counsellors, careers teachers. Outside of the school a large array of agencies are likely to be considered in support roles. These might include:

School Social Workers
Medical Services
Social Services
Probation Services
Juvenile Liaison Service
Careers Advisory Service
Youth Service
Voluntary Organizations

As pastoral care has taken on increasing importance in the minds of many British educators, some secondary schools have begun to assign leadership responsibilities to a particular person for the overall pastoral care of the school or for a particular year group. These persons are variously identified as Deputy Headmaster - Pastoral Care, Senior Tutor, Head of Year, Director of Guidance, Head of Careers Department, and Head of House.

Hartop (1973) has argued that heads of guidance departments (or whatever other term for pastoral care leadership seems appropriate) will likely organize their work in terms of the trinity of vocational, educational, and personal guidance. He breaks the specific emphasis of each of these components as follows:

Vocational Guidance: implementation of the careers education part of the curriculum, liaison with the Youth Employment Service, employers and other outside sources of information, vocational counselling with individuals

Educational Guidance: special concern for the development of learning skills and that part of the guidance syllabus which is designed to increase pupils, knowledge of educational opportunities, implementing a testing service and responsibility for the statistical treatment of marks and assessments, liaison with outside educational institutions.

Personal Guidance: mainly concerned with individual counselling of pupils about personal problems and behavior difficulties, group work in, for example, education for personal relationships, liaison with the social services, child guidance clinics, etc.

With the rise in pastoral care emphasis has come a concern about specialization versus dissemination of responsibilities for pastoral care across all the professional staff of a school. As Morland has posed the dilemma (p. 216), as a school specializes its pastoral care functions, it risks limiting the breadth of impact upon students. As it disseminates (shares responsibility throughout the entire staff), it risks losing knowledge and expertise. This issue is not resolved. But, as we will note later, there have emerged various specialists, or teachers with special training, to be more precise, who have begun to be integrated into the pastoral care system of various schools.

Obviously, the question of specialization rests at least partially upon the content of pastoral care. Is it comprised primarily of one to one discussions and admonitions about individual matters of choice and conduct or does it involve a more substantive body of information which has implications for group dissemination as well as for individual application? If the answer is the

latter, as current directions strongly suggest, then where is such content presented to students? Is it time tabled like other courses? Does it require a CSE or GCE subject-matter examination to legitimize it? The answers to these questions are not uniform across the country. In some instances, "pastoral care" relevant material is included in courses variously labelled liberal studies, integrated studies, social education or social studies. In other instances, syllabuses are prepared which include materials to be presented to students in special periods set aside each week or within a form period (essentially a home room period in American terms). In other instances, attempts are made to apportion pieces of the guidance syllabus to various subject matter courses.

There seems to be a growing press for guidance program content to be considered a direct part of the educational curricula although there is considerable hesitation by most observers to create CSE or GCE examinations with regard to it. There are a large number of materials being prepared for such programs with most of them being focused on educational and vocational guidance or careers education and these will be discussed later.

On balance, the British idea of appropriate content for a guidance program is in some respects wider than the typical American conception of such content. For example, Britons typically consider pastoral care and, therefore, guidance content to embrace educational, vocational, and personal guidance as well as health education, the use of leisure time, social and moral education, and, indeed, religious education. The exact topics vary from school to school and are likely to differ from year to year. The first two years of the guidance program for secondary schools are likely to emphasize educational and personal guidance, understanding the learning process, human nature and human interactions. In the third year more attention is typically paid to the characteristics of the working world, broad categories of occupations, the emphases and activities of industry and commerce, subject choices. The fourth year is likely to be more specific about occupations, self assessment, goals in work, etc.

A partial outline of topics necessary to a guidance program as presented by the secondary school in which they work has been reported by Howden and Dowson (1973) to include:

Topics common to all years

Motivation
Short term goals
Learning about learning
Anxieties about learning
Study habits questionnaire

Self awareness, self assessment and social relationships
Social etiquette

First and Second Years

Human development

Third Year

Common concerns
An aim and purpose in life
The local community
Use of the career library

Fourth and Fifth Years

What do I want from work
Information about specific occupations
Self assessment for career choices
Important factors of the working world
Money goals

CAREERS GUIDANCE IN SCHOOL

As suggested in the previous section, careers guidance in schools is basically seen as a component of pastoral care. In some cases, it is not provided in the first two years of the secondary school but is concentrated at the age of 13+ when subject matter choices must be made which are pertinent to the students' ultimate taking of CSE and O or A level examinations. In other instances careers guidance is seen as including vocational and educational guidance.

Careers guidance and careers education are not synonymous terms although they are sometimes used interchangeably. Careers guidance consists of the whole range of activities including placement, which assist a student to choose and find a place in either an occupation or further education at the point of school leaving. Careers education is a more recent part of careers guidance and is principally a developmental curriculum. More will be said about this later.

As a part of the pastoral care structure of the school, careers guidance has been provided principally by three types of persons: form or subject matter teachers, careers teachers, and careers officers. Much careers guidance has been performed in a random and informal basis by subject matter and form teachers (home room teachers), essentially untrained in either pertinent knowledge or

techniques. This has been a traditional pastoral care approach of disseminating responsibility throughout the staff.

Although each facet of careers guidance in the school tends to come under its own form of criticism, the whole of careers guidance work is quite variable across the country. Watts (1973) has described the situation as follows:

> The traditional approach to careers work in schools can not unreasonably be caricatured by picturing a pile of pamphlets in the corner of the school library and a twenty-minute guidance interview with (probably) the careers officer in which the pupil's occupational future is defined. Schools operating this approach may sometimes appoint a careers teacher to look after the pamphlets and to offer a point of referral both for the pupils and for the careers officer on his visits to the school. But the poverty of the training, time, money, and facilities with which the careers teacher is provided show that these schools conceptualize careers work in very limited terms. It is seen as being peripheral to, and possibly even a threat to, their main concerns. This traditional model still holds firm in a great many schools.

Careers Teachers

Over the past several decades (since approximately 1932), careers teachers have evolved. Typically, these are subject matter teachers who are also assigned several periods per week to do careers guidance and, perhaps, to maintain a small library of careers information. In some few instances these persons are full-time.

Some specific information about the status of careers teachers was collected and published by the Department of Education and Science in 1973 (DES, 1973). Of particular interest are the following findings:

- The vast majority of schools in England and Wales (94%) designate at least one member of staff as 'careers teacher'; 46 percent claim more than one teacher so designated. But the role is variously defined.

- Less than 60 percent of schools record the payment of any allowance for this work.

- In nearly half of all schools, the total time allotted to careers education and guidance amounts to no more than the equivalent of one-fifth of the work load of one full-time member of staff. Only 15 percent of all schools

record that careers teaching occupies as much as one-fifth of the work load of one member of staff.

–Twenty-four percent of schools record having at least one teacher who has attended a course of more than a week but less than a term; 11 percent claim to have at least one teacher who has attended a course of one term or longer. The remainder of the schools are likely to have had at least one staff person attend an in-service course of one to five days in duration.

–In terms of facilities only 38 percent of all schools claim one room or more devoted to careers work.

These people are basically untrained except for one or two short courses (a week or so in duration) dealing with occupations and other pertinent information. In large measure, the major qualification such persons have for their posts is interest in careers work. Very few careers teachers have the equivalent of one year of formal preparation in careers guidance although some persons who have been trained as school counselors have returned to schools and serve as a careers teacher.

Actually, there are few one year courses in the country specifically designed to prepare careers teachers although new ones are beginning to open up (e.g., North East London Polytechnic, New Castle Polytechnic). While there is a growing belief that some initial training ought to be included in the basic course for student teachers, in the main careers teachers now receive only in-service training provided by the Department of Education and Science or the Department of Employment within a Local Education Authority (LEA) (Avent, 1974).

The role of the careers teachers varies widely depending upon the amount of time they have available for careers work, the support of the head, the quality of the careers service in an LEA (to be taken up in the next section), the commitment of the careers teacher himself or herself. In general, they are likely to meet with groups of students to discuss information available and factors to consider in educational and job choice. In short, they are likely to be information givers in groups rather than interviewers and counselors to individual children. This is not always true, of course. Some careers teachers do interview children, give direct advice or counsel with them regarding choice dilemmas.

There are those observers who contend that as a part of a guidance or pastoral care team, the careers teacher's forté lies in his or her specific factual knowledge of careers and courses and of the philosophy of careers guidance which underlies the work in the classroom. It is this person's task to help the

individual student, primarily through group methods or reference to pertinent information, to reach appropriate vocational decision which take into account school performance, personal wishes, and the realities of the work world.

As suggested above the role of the careers teacher is an ambiguous and in many ways an elusive one. It depends on whether the careers teacher actually teaches careers education in a systematic way, simply dispenses information, infiltrates the regular subject matter curriculum and therefore serves as a resource to regular teachers or gets involved in crisis work of some kind. Since there are very few school counselors in Britain, the careers teacher may get involved with the headmaster or head of year in trying to work with students who are having particular kinds of difficulty in school. In some instances, the careers teacher may in fact be in charge of coordinating the pastoral care effort of the school, setting up work observation visits, and teaching or providing information on health, moral, social, leisure time as well as careers education.

With the general ambiguity of the role, careers teachers receive considerable criticism. Chief among their critics are careers officers about whom more will be said in a moment. Career officers tend to define the role of the careers teacher as being concerned mainly with administration. According to Roberts (1971) they believe that it should be the job of the careers teacher to ensure that adequate provision for careers work was made on a school's timetable, to assist in the circulation of careers literature to pupils, and to collect information about the pupils' abilities and aptitudes that the careers officer could then use in the vocational guidance process. In addition, the careers teacher was expected to organize visits to places of work, group discussions, film shows and to introduce visiting speakers–again, function in primarily administrative roles.

Careers teachers do not share this view of careers officers about their roles. As careers teachers have begun to organize nationally (first as the National Association of Careers Teachers and now the National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers) they have become more assertive about their role and their status. This association sees the career teachers as the pivotal point of the advisory services in the school of the future and ideally they wish to have their own departments which will specialize in the provision of careers advice to students. Such a role would certainly conflict with what careers officers now do.

According to a personal interview with Mr. Ray Heppel (1976), current President of the National Association of Career and Guidance Teachers, the national association sees the careers teacher becoming more involved with guidance in broad terms and with coordination of all the pastoral care activities in the school. He believes, however, that heads of schools and many subject

matter teachers need to be educated about careers teachers and their work. He further believes that in order for careers teachers to gain the professional credibility to which they aspire, they must possess a respectable educational process and a set of purposeful techniques. Such a condition would tend to validate the essential function of the careers teacher. For this reason, among others, he supports the emergence of careers education as it will be discussed later as a major responsibility of careers (and guidance) teachers.

Careers Officers

As a function of the Employment and Training Act of 1973, it became mandatory for every Local Education Authority to have a careers service. In effect this action integrated what had been the Youth Employment Service into the education structure and out of the direct supervision of the Department of Employment. Actually, the Employment and Training Act of 1948 made such an integration optional by Local Education Authorities and provided staffing and financial support by the Department of Employment to do so. Between 1948 and 1973 approximately 70 percent of LEA's had exercised their option to provide such a careers service.

Basic reasons for changing the placement of careers officers from outside to inside the educational structure included:

a. that the system of dual responsibility at local level for Youth Employment Services had disadvantages;

b. that a division of responsibility between youth and adult employment services based on age was becoming less and less realistic as more people continued education to a later age;

c. that, since the vital task of starting young people on their careers involved a large element of careers guidance which took place in an educational context and which ought to be extended to the increasing numbers in further and higher education, all local education authorities should have a duty to provide vocational guidance and employment services for those attending and leaving educational institutions, and a power to extend these services to others who sought to use them; and

d. that Government control of local education authority services should be less detailed than under the existing legislation and that subvention by specific grant should therefore be replaced by the more usual method of rate support grant.
(Central Youth Employment Executive, 1974, p. 2 and 3)

Careers officers are not housed in specific schools as careers teachers are. Rather they operate from central careers centers and "visit" schools. In global terms, careers teachers are considered to deal with groups of students about issues of preparation for choice; careers officers deal with the interviewing and placing of individual students into employment while careers teachers are expected to insure that pupils have adequate information about courses and careers on which to make decisions, it is not the prime function of a careers teacher to give vocational guidance. Such distinctions are overly simplistic and in many places the roles of careers teachers and careers officers overlap and cause conflicts. As suggested in the previous section, the careers officers believe that careers teachers should function in certain, fairly limited ways and careers teachers, particularly as represented by the National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers, believe that careers teachers should function in broader terms.

In point of fact, the role of both the careers teacher and the careers officer is ambiguous. Neither the Employment and Training Act of 1973 nor its predecessors defined the role of the careers officers; it permitted much local autonomy and latitude in the way such a role would be discharged. From interviews and observation with a considerable number of careers officers and careers teachers, it is clear that the role of the careers officer depends upon the capability and the preferences of the person occupying the role.

It is generally considered that the careers officer's particular expertise is in the vocational guidance of individual pupils, and the careers teacher's expertise is in the preparation of classes of pupils by means of a program of careers education. As suggested previously, the roles sometimes reverse or at least overlap in many instances. However, the majority of careers officers are not trained teachers, but their training has equipped them with more techniques of individual guidance and knowledge of occupational psychology and structure and information about the labor market than would have been included in the training of the teacher. It is commonly said that the careers teachers know the pupils and the careers officers the jobs. According to the Department of Education and Science (1973, p. 25), the expertise of the careers officers in regard to secondary education is threefold. First, they have access to information about possibilities of employment both locally and nationally. Second, they possess knowledge of specific occupations, including those for which special qualifications are needed. Third, they develop, with training and experience, the insight, sensitivity and shrewdness needed in vocational guidance interviews.

The main functions of the careers officer, according to Avent (1974, p. 64), include:

1. Giving talks to classes of pupils about the world of work.

2. Helping to devise the programme of careers education.

3. Be the source of information on suitable visits, perhaps providing schools with lists of employers who are willing to receive parties of pupils.

4. Undertake the individual vocational guidance of pupils mostly in the fifth and subsequent years.

5. Introduce school leavers to employers having vacancies.

6. Follow the progress of young workers by means of questionnaires, contacts with employers and invitations to see him or her in the evenings when the office is open.

In addition, the careers officer also has responsibilities to employers and to colleges of further education. It is likely that the careers officer will set upon committees to discuss new training schemes, advise employers about training courses, apprenticeships, and to interpret the educational system to representatives of industry, commerce, the professions, and the community at large. Frequently, the careers officer meets with parents and with teachers to discuss the prospects of specific children. The careers officer is also responsible for running an office with all that envolves from a management and communication stand-point.

The DES Survey (1973, p. 27) previously cited reported that schools receive assistance from careers officers in the following ways:

By giving talks and holding discussions with pupils	97%
By giving talks and holding discussions with parents	64%
In planning careers programmes	63%
In planning work visits	58%
In planning talks to parents	48%
In planning work experience	20%

These functions generally accord with the perspectives of Avent about the role of careers officers. It should be noted, however, that the DES Survey also indicated that in some schools, careers officers provide not only vocational guidance but all specialized work in careers. Data do not exist to show how wide this practice is but it clearly does exist.

A further example of the flexibility of provisions which careers officers might make in schools is indicated in the following list (Heppel, 1976). This range of involvement does not take place in every school, but all aspects of the range do occur in some schools.

CAREERS OFFICERS' SERVICES IN SCHOOLS

Parents–Direct Contact

A. School Lecture–Formal large group situation
B. Group Talks–Informal small groups. Information giving.
C. Group Discussion–Probably selected groups. Question and answer.
D. Individual Interviews in School–Information. Special problems.
E. Individual Interviews at Office–Information. Special problems.

Parents–Indirect Contact

F. Careers Service Information Booklet–General and local information on services available to pupils and parents.
G. Information Sheets–Explanatory leaflet on Careers Services relevant to particular schools.
H. Individual Correspondence–Individual problems.

Pupils–Direct Contact

I. Lecture–Formal large group situation.
J. Classroom Lesson–Class group. Normal teaching techniques.
K. Group Discussion–Information. Maximum 15 in group. Information giving. Possibly selected interest groups.
L. Group Discussion–Guidance. Maximum 10 in group. Aim to allow individual to better assess himself in relation to others.
M. Interview–Information and exploratory. Giving individual factual information. No report necessary.
N. Interview–Careers advisory. Half hour minimum. Reports available. Individual career guidance. Parents/teachers presence if desired.
O. Interview–Vocational guidance. Depth interview. Full reports. Parents report. D.A. test results available. No others present. One hour available. Written report to client.
P. Interview–Placing. Job finding interview at Careers Office.

Pupils–Indirect Contact

Q. Library Service–Reference library and career leaflet issue at Careers Office.
R. Information Sheets–Occupational or administration information sheet re school or locality.
S. Individual Correspondence–Individual problems.

Staff–Direct Contact

T. Group Talks–Explanatory sessions to teachers, e.g., at Staff Meetings.
U. Case Conferences–Individual pupil's problems.
V. Individual Sessions–Give or receive information with individual staff members.
W. Team Co-Ordinating Meetings–School Guidance and Pastoral Care Staff and Careers Officers.

Staff–Indirect Contact

X. Information Booklet–General information on work of local careers service available for all teachers.
Y. Information Sheet–Occupational or administration information re school or locality.
Z. Individual Correspondence

The training of most careers officers, like that of most careers teachers, is very minimal, consisting primarily of in-service short courses. This is changing rapidly with younger careers officers being exposed to considerably more training than those who entered the careers service five or more years ago. There are now 11 full-time courses to train careers officers, as well as two week to three month modular courses dealing with various aspects of the careers officers duties. There is also under development a two-year part-time route to a diploma which is equivalent to a one-year full-time course. There are also a variety of specialist courses available for careers officers provided by a number of different agencies and organizations.

As a result of improved training, there is evidence of greater use of audio-visual aids and of group discussion techniques by careers officers as a means of imparting information and as an encouragement to pupils toward informal, open ended discussion. The careers service now also offers specialized help in the preparation and placement of pupils with higher academic potential and with handicapped or potentially handicapped young people (CYEE, 1974).

While careers officers play a significant role in the careers guidance effort in the school and they are becoming increasingly professionalized by training and

status, they still experience conflicts within their ranks and with other professionals. Some of these problems of role definition were previously discussed in regard to careers teachers. In fact, careers officers are being squeezed by improvements in the competence of and a broadening of the role of careers teachers, as well as by the training in interviewing and handling of personal problems of school counselors within the educational context and by changes within the Employment Services Agency in the community. The latter group have organized job centres all over England which are colorful and well staffed. They are usually arranged in three tiers. On the ground floor there are job shops where people can select an available job and then pursue acquisition procedures almost like a private employment agency. On the second floor are employment advisers. On the third floor are various specialties such as the Disabled Resettlement Officer and the Occupational Guidance Unit which provides in-depth job advisement. This is the counseling and guidance program of the government for those over 18 years of age. Also on the third floor are the offices of the Professional and Executive Recruitment personnel--the government's management consulting agency; a response to private "head-hunters" of executive personnel.

These pressures and competing groups have continued to cause careers officers confusion about their role definition and place in society. Roberts, (1976), in a recent article circulated within the Careers Service, asks where is the Careers Service Heading? He contends that for the past 60 years, the careers service has remained "a victim of circumstances rather than the architect of its own history. The modern service and its predecessors have spent their lifetimes responding to immediate situations with little guidance from any broader purposive strategy.... the responses have been ad hoc rather than anticipated within a longer-term strategy and sense of purpose." He then goes on to argue that among other problems the Careers Services does not operate on the basis of a theory so that purpose and strategy rather than simply day-to-day tactics and working methods can be evolved. The absence of theory is partly responsible for its tendency to drift in directions.

Quite apart from the philosophical and theoretical malaise which Roberts ascribes to Careers Officers, others see them as offering a valuable and useful service. For example, Cherry (1974) has reported a longitudinal study of 5,362 young people born in the first week of March 1946 and living throughout Britain. Ninety percent of the 15 year-old school leavers in the sample were recommended by the Youth Employment Service (the designation of Careers Officers which existed until 1974) to take up a particular sort of job. It was found that the sample members who followed this advice stayed longer in their first job than young people who took up some other work. The evidence presented suggests that the better performance results not from the personality of the young people who accepted advice nor from the superior types of first

job they entered, but from the accurate assessment by the careers officers of their abilities and interests. Cherry concludes that, on the basis of these data, it "would be unfortunate if the wholly justified enthusiasm for extended careers programmes in schools and for experiments with new methods of counselling should lead to the work of the Service being discounted. Until new methods of guidance are generally available and have been shown to be effective, the school-leaving interview will continue to be a most valuable source of advice and assistance."

The School Counselor in Careers Education

Since a major section of this report will be devoted to the emergence of the school counselor in British education, little will be said here about the role of the school counselor in careers education. In point of fact, there is not a great deal which can be said about the school counselor in this role. Because of the minimum number of counselors in the schools and the recency of their arrival on the educational scene, counselors have not been seen as significant factors in careers work. Their skills have typically been focused in other directions. Obviously there are counselors who take on such a role and there are counselor-trained teachers who actually serve as careers teachers, but, on balance, partially because of the significant numbers of careers teachers and careers officers, school counselors have not principally been involved with careers work.

In many cases, the school counselor is seen as a person primarily concerned with personal and social problems. In most cases, careers work is not seen to fall in these categories although a recent DES publication (1973, p. 3) has indicated that personal counseling and careers guidance are interrelated; counselling and guidance are seen as means of helping young people to come to terms with their own strengths and weaknesses and to learn to live with others.

Obviously, different counselors give different emphasis to aspects of their role. Some serve principally a referral role, others are primarily interested in the educational progress and testing of students, others concentrate on personal counselling and still others engage in vocational counselling. However, at the present time, their principal contributions to careers work seems to be seen as a team member who has in-depth knowledge of the personalities and characteristics of a proportion of the school population, the ability to offer a confidential service in which a student can be helped to clarify his feelings and the reality of circumstances as well as to capitalize on his strengths and come to grips with his weaknesses, and finally to help in early detection of those children with specific personal needs which are impairing progress and development.

In one sense, everything that careers teachers and careers officers do is careers education. But, as has been shown, there is great unevenness in the competence, approach, and coverage of the efforts of these persons. Frequently careers teachers do not have materials, resources, or time to do a developmental approach to the integration of the various types of knowledge and skills important to facilitating individual choice and purpose in education and work. Careers officers are scattered among schools and more likely to be able to work on an interview basis with individual children than in a systematic, continuing way with groups of pupils. As shown in other sections of this report, observers are increasingly contending that a more comprehensive approach to careers education needs to be taken.

In addition to the effects of educational, economic, occupational, and social factors cited at the beginning of this report, the forward progress of careers education has also been influenced by two other major factors. One is the survey of careers education in secondary schools conducted by the Department of Education and Science (1973) and the other is the report of the Schools Council Working Party on the Transition from School to Work (1972) which gave rise to the Schools Council. These careers education and guidance project documents have in turn spurred a variety of other activity pertinent to careers education.

Just as in the United States, definitions and interpretations of what careers education consists vary among its users. In some cases, it appears that some documents and persons are describing whatever careers teachers do (what we have earlier called careers guidance), while other discussions use the term more precisely as a component of careers guidance. The Department of Education and Science defines careers education "as that element in the programme of a secondary school explicitly concerned with preparation for adult life." It goes on to suggest that:

> Between the ages of 13 and 17 and in some cases well beyond these years, young people pass through a zone of critical decision, a period when they must learn to know themselves, to come to terms with their strengths and weaknesses, to make choices, reach decisions, and accept the implications of those decisions. It is the period during which consultation should take place between pupils, teachers, parents, and careers officers about long term educational and vocational strategy or about short term tactics. It is a period of choice and of decision, but also of adaptation to conditions in an adult world in which occupational opportunity for young people varies considerably from area to area. One clearly definable component of careers education is information about the world of work: about what the

Americans call 'clusters' of employment; about the atmosphere and tempo of various activities essential to the maintenance and development of organized society; and about opportunities for working in a multiplicity of situations, not only within the environment familiar to boys and girls, but in the wider world which lies beyond their experience (DES, p. 1).

Even with as broad an interpretation of careers education as this, the DES report has laid down some other more precise principles about careers education. They include such observations as the following:

–it is only in the last decade that the significance of careers education as a *continuous process* has gained anything approaching general recognition (DES, p. 2)

–it became increasingly apparent that vocational guidance was only the last stage of what must properly be regarded as a continuous process beginning for all boys and girls not later than the age of 13 (DES, p. 2)

–a school's policy and practice in careers education may be assessed by the extent to which three objectives are attained:

(i) to help boys and girls to achieve an understanding of themselves and to be realistic about their strengths and weaknesses

(ii) to extend the range of their thinking about opportunities in work and in life generally

(iii) to prepare them to make considered choices (DES, p. 6)

–achieving self-awareness, broadening horizons and preparation for the making of decisions suggest a policy to be implemented in two stages. The first stage is one of exploration–a divergent process. The second entails a convergent process leading to a decision either to continue full-time education in school or elsewhere, or to enter employment. (DES, p. 7)

–there is more than one way of tackling the process of exploration. One approach is to construct and treat a syllabus, for instance in English, mathematics, home economics or art, so that aspects of the world of work will be illuminated in discussion, reading, and writing. . . . The effectiveness of such 'infusion' is found to depend to a large extent on whether the curriculum is planned by a team; it also depends on the influence exercised by the head of the careers department. An alternative or additional approach is to give careers education time on the timetable. However, in nearly a third of all schools, no periods are devoted

specifically to careers education and the concept of careers education as a continuous process for all from the age of 13 onwards is in no sense realized. (DES, p. 7)

–the word 'career' is used to describe progress through life: how men and women earn their living and spend their time. (DES, p. 61)

–careers education is concerned explicitly with preparation for adult life and with the acquisition of knowledge and development of skills which have relevance for the future. Implicit in the continuous process are: self knowledge; the exploration of the material world and the people who live in it; the training of the intellect; the development of the creative and aesthetic senses; the challenge of moral principle and the response to it; the awareness and understanding of spiritual values. Careers education is not a new concept; it identifies and accentuates certain specific features in the profile of general education familiar to every secondary school teacher. (DES, p. 63)

The overall conclusion of the DES survey is that the concept of careers education as it has been defined and its elements extracted above are not at present generally accepted or put into practice except by a minority of schools. (DES, p. 61)

The Schools Council Working Paper previously cited does not define careers education or its elements as clearly as the DES survey. Indeed, in many instances, it tends to use careers education, careers work, and careers guidance interchangeably. Nevertheless, there are elements which can be extracted from the report which suggest the careers education goals which the Schools Council advocates. They include:

–careers education for all pupils must take account of all aspects of the transition from school to work and must not be concentrated solely on careers guidance in the sense of guidance towards occupational choice. (Schools Council, p. 6)

–the general task. . . . is helping pupils to make a series of decisions which will enable them to achieve a systematic exploration of possibilities. . . . the youngster needs to acquire and evaluate information about two main areas–himself and occupations. The task may then be defined more specifically as: ensuring that the pupil has the basis for an appropriate understanding both of himself and of possible occupations, and helping the pupil to develop a scale of values to apply to the knowledge and understanding he has gained. (Schools Council, p. 22)

–whenever a child causes his teacher to wonder whether an employer would either not employ him at all or would tolerate him for only a short time, that child needs remedial careers education. . . . One of the first tasks of careers work, to be undertaken no later then the third form, is to identify all those children who may be deemed at risk of eventually leaving school incapable of adjusting satisfactorily to the demands of working life, and to provide remedial attention to meet their individual needs and vulnerabilities. (Schools Council, p. 24)

–a liberal education is above all an education for choice, and the ability to choose wisely is the most important skill that any guidance programme must seek to foster. (Schools Council, p. 22)

–the most important element of pre-vocational education is a widely diversified education in which youngsters can exercise choices not only about what they work at but about how they work. By the time they reach 16. . . (students) should have begun to be able to estimate their own strengths and weaknesses, to discover whether they liked to work in groups or on their own, whether their rhythm of work means that they should seek a flexible kind of job or would work well on fixed routines, whether they need to be told what to do or prefer to exercise judgment, and so on. (Schools Council, p. 33)

–Apart from the opportunity for self-appraisal, the most important pre-vocational education will be one that strengthens young people's social competence and thereby their autonomy. (Schools Council, p. 34)

–careers work in today's terms would encompass four curriculum themes:

  –self-awareness and self-exploration

  –understanding the working world, the role of the working adult, and the differences between the various occupations and work environments

  –acquiring decision-making skill and the confidence to be self-determining

  –an awareness of social involvements and responsibility (Schools Council, p. 36)

In addition, the Schools Council report recommends that careers education include a time-tabled careers course each week taught by the careers teacher as well as 'careers teaching' in other subjects. The careers course itself should follow the four themes identified in the preceding paragraph. The style of the course advocated would include the following elements. Work both in groups and individually. Information-giving through talks or lectures should form part of the course but never predominate. Instead of talking about business careers,

for example, the teacher should get groups to set up an imaginary firm and to explore the structure, function, and day-to-day running with each member taking particular roles. Such work can eventually be extended to some period of running real organizations within the school. Careful preparation beforehand, particularly in the construction of simulated materials–from note paper to balance sheets–is necessary to ensure a sense of reality in the enterprise. Such situation or simulation exercises can provide the essential shared experiences that are vital as points of reference in later description and discussion of the world of business. Recommended content of a total careers course would include:

Section 1 (in form groups)

Introduction

Why work? Social and economic factors; plan of the year's careers work and its objectives; broad look at age and entry qualifications and the pattern of further and higher education in relation to such qualifications.

Source of information about careers

Where to find information in school from the guidance resource centre (see Part III, Chapter XI), careers tutor, careers officer, and other staff; out of school information from newspapers, advertisements, parents, friends, and publications obtained from firms, etc.; need for this factual information in decision-making to be carefully assessed and the limitations of each as a single source to be examined.

Self-analysis

Introduction to self-assessment, using questionnaires with progression in scope and content; these cover health, abilities, attainments, physical characteristics, preferences, aims, disposition, and circumstances.

Careers analysis

A general look at the range of opportunities for school leavers; classification of careers under broad headings, initially using various criteria, then narrowing this down–to those suggested below for example; the probable placing of individual careers discussed using a grid.

Introduction to career interest groups

The pupils make decisions about the career groups they are most interested in, with the assistance of the careers officer; an interest inventory and tests of aptitudes and abilities are given to a number of pupils to assist them in making career decisions and in self-analysis.

Section 2 (structured into careers interest groups within the form—scientific/technical, business/office, social, artistic/practical)

With the children in these new groups their work is on an individual or small group research basis and they compile individual or group folders. The careers tutor assists rather than talks—providing basis materials, speakers, films, or visits as required. The pupils are encouraged to write letters for information. They use a battery tape-recorder and other recording aids for interviewing people who are at work. Individuals can change groups within the class as their ideas change or develop.

Section 3 (in form groups)

Pupils report on the work done in the interest groups—pupils themselves leading and illustrating the discussion. They also exhibit material that they have collected and reproduce some of the research for use in the resource centre. Care is taken to see that the reporting of each interest group covers the full range of levels of entry.

Full involvement in discussion enables all of the form to become aware of the essentials of other interest groups—rather than merely their own. Films, talks, and other aids are also incorporated to enliven interest.

The foregoing procedures can make possible further self-analysis and career analysis which can then be based upon wider career knowledge and greater self awareness.

Section 4

The following themes are included:

Discussion of the general background to employment.

Further and higher education courses: full-time; part-time; the alternatives ahead—sixth form or college of industrial training; the apprenticeship grants, awards, sponsorship, etc.

Money matters: National Insurance, grants, awards, pay, bonuses, superannuation, savings, income tax, expenses, etc.

Unions and professional bodies; unions, guilds, institutions, etc.; functions and aims.

Industrial welfare and safety: Factory acts; Office, Shops and Railway Premises Act; working conditions; health obligations and responsibilities, etc.

Section 5 (whole year group together)

Review of programme and afternoon's conference for all pupils to discuss and suggest amendments.

The suggested responsibilities of a careers team beyond the careers course itself might include:

The fourth and fifth years

This is a vital time in guidance work and it is now that the concept of a team function will be paramount. The careers team may be exactly the same as the tutorial or form guidance team at this level or they may be a separate team which works in conjunction with it, sharing information and activities throughout. Careers officers are an integral part of the team as are counsellors and staff with similar advisory roles. The team should comprise both sexes, and cover various subject disciplines over the full range of educational possibilities (including higher education). It is desirable that there should be a co-ordinator of this team. He should embrace sixth-form careers work as well as fourth- and fifth-year work to provide a broader view of the programme.

Responsibilities of the team

Team members, not all of whom will both counsel and teach, will undertake the following responsibilities:

a. presentation of the careers course;

b. preparation for the decision taking following individual consultation;

c. maintenance of adequate documentation, for example, records of careers interests, objective and attainment tests, interest inventories, academic potential, etc.;

d. close liaison with staff responsible for pastoral care, for example personal tutors, if the careers team is not identical with them (In eliciting information about the personal characteristics of pupils, it is particularly important that close contact be maintained between careers officers, tutors, and subject teachers.);

e. continuing contact with parents both individually and at group information meetings;

f. organization of a careers resource centre including a library of information;

g. further internal activities, such as careers exhibitions, conferences, and conventions, in conjunction with the careers officer; displays and demonstrations on a thematic basis; lunch and after school clubs, etc.;

h. out-going activities like work experience, contact with local industry and co-operation with bodies like careers associations, Rotary Clubs, and the Round Table;

i. contact with further education for 16-year-old leavers going into this part of the system;

j. in-service training for staff concerned with guidance in all its forms.

Perhaps the major impact of the Schools Council Report on Careers Education is the creation of the Schools Council Careers Education and Guidance Project. While this project has a number of objectives, first among them is the production of classroom materials designed to shift the emphasis in careers work from an information-giving process to the active creation of, and pupil projection into, experiences and problems analogous to those met in working life.

The specific aims of the project have been identified as follows:

The project has been established to produce classroom materials which will help the pupil to get a realistic foretaste of the sort of experience and problems he will face in working life. Its main aims are:

1. To develop a range of materials varying in complexity and appropriate for different ages and the whole ability range. These will be designed to arouse interest through model situations, simulated work problems for individuals and groups, work analysis, and will provide personal responses to the demands of pupils. All will be supported by audiovisual

aids and will provide a series of graded stepping-stones by which understanding through experience can be gained.

2. To explore methods and types of courses—from separate careers study to work integrated into other subjects—through which these materials can be used most effectively in the classroom and through which the way can be paved towards actual work experience.

3. To examine the setting of this work within the curriculum and total guidance programme of the school—with particular reference to careers departments, tutorial care, counselling, the Careers Advisory Service, and work experience.

4. To establish a programme of evaluation which will make use of the informed comments of careers teachers, careers officers, and organizations.

5. To pay attention to the problems of adapting its materials to suit particular local situations.

6. To study the practical organization of careers information in schools, so that pupils stimulated by the use of new materials and methods may pursue their own inquiries into detailed careers information more purposefully.

The concept of careers education used here is not primarily concerned with specific job selection, but with stimulating an understanding of the many varieties of work and their interdependence. It is seen, not as a short-term burst of information-giving, but as an active and continuing educational process, which should involve careful co-ordination with the system of personal and educational guidance in the school.

Several kinds of materials have been produced in the project.

The guiding aims underlying the resource materials are that careers education should support and encourage children to understand themselves; that it should bring the world of work into the classroom; that it should help children to understand their responsibility to the community; and that it should provide opportunities to practice decision-making.

Foundation Course (intended for third year pupils) takes these four areas of self, work, community and decisions and converts them into classroom activities. They are arranged in a sequence linked to the pupil's developing awareness of himself and the working world. Starter resources for these

activities are contained in eight issues of a newspaper entitled Framework and a set of teachers' notes. These are supported by packs of class material; Why Careers, a magazine for pupils and parents; Frame, an explanatory brochure for teachers; and a teachers' manual which outlines the philosophy and methodology of the course.

Continuation Course A (intended for fourth and fifth year pupils) is designed as a developmental programme building on the foundation course but developing in greater detail areas of study, methods of analysis, etc. It discusses such questions as: what is a job? how will I find enough confidence? what have I got to offer? how do they rate me? how do jobs differ? what is the use of work? what can I do if I don't work? what am I interested in and what am I good at? what do I want out of life? The material will take the form of a teachers' guide, pupil magazines, year planners, further class resource material and careers information for parents.

Continuation Course B (for sixth form pupils and students in colleges of further education). This material will be developed after the results of a feasibility study which is to be conducted in order to establish what material and what particular problems are specific to this area. This will be carried out in 1975-76.

The specific types of exercises being developed in the project include:

Making a T-Shirt

The class is divided into groups of four. Each group is given the following task:

> "*Make, decorate and model* a paper T-shirt."

The following raw materials are distributed to each group:

- a bundle of newspapers
- a roll of sellotape *or* a stapler *or* a bottle of glue.

Individuals in each group are allocated these roles,

1. *The Boss*–sees that everyone is occupied in some way for the *whole time* but only on the jobs they have been allocated.
2. *The Factory Worker*–makes the T-shirt.
3. *The Designer*–decorates the shirt.
4. *The Model*–wears the shirt.

Although the jobs are inter-related, and the tasks will overlap, pupils are asked to concentrate on doing only the job they have been allocated. Groups are given 15 minutes to complete the task. Each person then writes brief notes about their job under the following headings:

- Time wasted
- Skills required
- Frustrations experienced
- Interest felt
- Rules used
- Tasks enjoyed.

The groups are then re-formed so that there are four large groups–Bosses, Factory Workers, Designers, and Models. They read each others' reports and compare experiences.

The activity is concluded by a full group discussion concerned with how doing the same job means different things to different people.

SKILLOMETER

Imagine this is the place you work selling hardware, electrical goods, and things like that. What would you need to know?

List on the "Skillometer" ten skills you would need to do this job well.

Now try this: Would the skills on your skillometer help you in the following situations:

(1) A customer insists the store has sold him faulty goods, he is becoming very angry and is shouting at you.

(2) The store is full and someone tries to jump the queue.

(3) You aren't very busy but you want everyone to think you are.

(4) You suspect someone of shoplifting.

(5) Your friends keep coming to see you when you are busy, and the manager is getting fed up with them.

Discuss with your friends how you would handle each situation and then rethink your skillometer list for this job.

In for the skill. Build up a list of skills you will need for your life next year (at school, work, or looking for a job). You may need to talk about it with people who are already there!

The major problem of this project is that it lacks a significant conceptual structure from which to develop the activities making up the program content. Therefore, the activities being generated tend to be seen as occurring in a vacuum without articulation among themselves or with regard to behavioral objectives for students.

As is the purpose of any seminal documents, both the DES Survey and the Schools Council Working Paper have triggered other definitions, refinements of or extensions of careers education. One such document is that developed as the policy for the Inner London Education Authority, the biggest and probably most influential such authority in Britain. It includes the definition, aims, and objectives, needed provisions for as well as some issues surrounding careers education as seen from the perspective of the Inner London Education Authority (Avent, personal interview, July 12, 1976). This is the ILEA Policy Statement:

CAREERS EDUCATION AND GUIDANCE

1. *Definition*

Careers Education is that part of the curriculum of secondary school pupils and students in FHE colleges which is school/college based, the responsibility of teachers, undertaken on a class or group basis irrespective of the stage of vocational maturity reached by individual pupils and their own needs for guidance in their progress through the education system into work.

A course of careers education should be seen as applicable to all pupils of both sexes and the whole range of ability, to be directed towards the acquisition of knowledge and skills and the promotion of attitudes designed to help pupils face adult life irrespective of the stage at which they choose their own careers. It should have a considerable amount of pupil participation, including written work and exercises, and not merely mean passive absorption of ideas from teachers or various aids. It should actively assist pupils in the process of acquiring self-awareness and understanding and give them practice in decision-making as well as in those skills appropriate to the transition from school to work.

2. *Aims and Objectives*

(a) To develop *Educational Awareness* through understanding of educational provision in specific institutions and courses and of the relationship between educational requirements and career choices;

(b) To develop *Career Awareness* through understanding of career opportunities, job openings and the life styles that are associated with different types of work;

(c) To develop *Self Awareness* through understanding of individual abilities and competencies, interests and values, and those personal characteristics which are important in planning educational and career aspirations;

(d) To develop *Planning Skills* through understanding of personal decision-making, coping skills to meet various life-situations, and the procedures involved in making the transition from school to work or further education.

3. *Provision*

Ideally a secondary school has a Head of Department of Careers who is responsible for the organisation of the various activities which make up the syllabus and for the co-ordination of curricular contributions of other subject teachers (particularly English, Social Studies, and Mathematics) and from careers officers and other extra-mural agents, e.g., FHE lecturers and representatives of industry, commerce and the public services. Pupils in 3rd, 4th, and 5th years should be time-tabled for Careers Education on a weekly or block basis and teachers in the careers team be time-tabled to provide occasional classes for 6th formers (e.g., pre-UCCA) and to enable them to interview each pupil annually from the 4th year onwards in order to monitor educational progress and its relationship with changing career aspirations.

4. *I.L.E.A. Policy as recommended by Schools Sub-Committee on 17.9.74*

(a) That every county and voluntary ILEA secondary school be encouraged to establish a post of Head of Department of Careers Guidance on a scale equivalent to that accorded to House or Year Heads.

(b) That District Inspectors should encourage Heads to make provision within the timetable for all pupils to have basic careers education during the main school years and for the team of careers teachers to

have adequate time to take classes of pupils on preparation for adult life as well as supervising the Careers Resource Centre and organising a programme of activities in cooperation with Careers Officers.

(c) That generous support be given to teachers undertaking training for careers work by short in-service courses—many of which occur during school holidays—and by longer courses as these develop.

(d) That appropriate facilities be provided for pupils, parents, and teachers in all secondary schools to have ready access to appropriate sources of information on careers and tertiary education and for the establishment of pupil record systems to facilitate co-ordination between teachers with pastoral responsibilities within the school and Careers Officers and other agencies concerned with the welfare of young people.

(e) That teachers should be encouraged to volunteer for inclusion in a school's careers team, especially if they have had industrial or commercial experience, in order to foster closer links between schools, further education and employers.

5. *Some Issues*

(a) Difficulty in finding physical and financial resources as well as time for an additional subject.

(b) Should this be an examination course? (Some elements are included in C.S.E. Social Studies Mode I)

(c) In times of high unemployment, pupils of low scholastic achievement no longer regard careers education as relevant. (This attitude can be countered by emphasis on "whole life style" rather than crude job information.)

(d) Some teachers maintain that careers education "produces factory fodder for capitalist society"!

(e) Other teachers dislike any suggestion of "vocationalising education" and believe that pupils should study for "pure academic" reasons, regardless of the vocational outcome.

(f) There is sometimes conflict between the role of the careers teacher and the Careers Officer.

(g) Concepts of *Education for Employability* are not always accepted by teachers who resent employers' complaints and that pupils leave school unable to communicate or calculate and with behavioural characteristics which reflect unsympathetic attitudes towards the personal relationships involved at work.

(h) Careers Education on a mixed ability basis conforms to the comprehensive ideal because it shows the interdependence of workers' contribution to society at all educational levels, but many teachers find it difficult because they lack knowledge of industry and commerce or training in this subject.

Watts, Senior Fellow and Executive Head of the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling (1973), has contended that there are four basic objectives for careers education. They are:

1. To help pupils to acquire vocabulary and knowledge for distinguishing:

   a. Occupations
   b. Non-occupational roles, e.g., family and leisure roles.
   c. Educational alternatives
   d. Personal characteristics, e.g., aptitudes, interests, values

2. To help pupils to develop a knowledge of their own strengths and weaknesses, and to understand the relationship of these characteristics to:

   a. Occupational choices
   b. Choices of non-occupational roles
   c. Educational choices

3. To help pupils to develop effective decision-making strategies and the skills for carrying them out.

4. To prepare pupils for the transition of their post-school environment and for the personal adjustment that will be required.

In turn, these objectives are seen by Watts as separable into four components: self awareness, opportunity awareness, decision-making and preparation for transition (Watts & Herr, 1976). The binding element among these components of careers education is the concept of career decision-making. By and large, the perspectives of Watts and of the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling are based more fully on career development theory and research (primarily American) and are less broad than

the other definitions and perspectives cited from the DES, Schools Council or Inner London Education Authority. As has been pointed out recently (Watts & Herr, 1976), the use of the term careers education in Britain tends to confuse two matters: (1) careers education as a specific curriculum centered around the concept of career decision-making and (2) careers education as a broader philosophical standpoint which seeks to influence the whole curriculum–and indeed the whole structure–of the school.

In the schools that have attempted to introduce a systematic curricular scheme of careers education to date, five main approaches can be identified (Watts, 1973):

1. An approach through traditional school subjects–e.g., studying local industry in geography and history, self-assessment in English, financial considerations in mathematics. A number of writers and observers have advocated such an approach and given specific suggestions about what might be included. For example, Howden and Dowson (1973, p. 22) suggest the following types of content be integrated into traditional subject matter as follows:

English. Letters of application, acceptance or rejection of jobs, asking for references or thanks after a visit. Completing application forms. Writing imaginary autobiographies. Simulating telephone calls, enquiring about a job or arranging an interview. Practice interviews. Proposing a note of thanks. Excerpts from literature concerning the adult world and the world of work.

Maths. Budgeting, wages, taxes, insurance, hire purchase, social security. Business game. Practice in measurement and accuracy.

Geography. Local industries and the geographical reasons for their location. How environment influences growth of industry and subsequent job choice. Mapping local industries. Mapping colleges and universities.

History. History of local industry. Growth of trade unionism. Reform acts re work and factory conditions, employment of children and women, social benefits, education. The industrial revolution. Local government services.

Science. Relevance of the sciences to manufacturing and other fields of employment.

Art. Designing career posters and labels for use in careers room.

Avent (1974, p. 41-53), too, has outlined a comprehensive series of ideas pertinent to careers education which can be integrated into English, mathe-

matics, physical education, religious education, art, history, geography, social studies, handicraft and housecraft, commerce and economics, language, and science as well as at different year levels. Other such suggestions can be found in the Schools Council Careers Education and Guidance Project.

2. An approach through social studies. A number of CSE courses in social studies have included a 'world of work' component. Since CSE courses are not taken by all pupils, however, it is necessary to find other courses beyond the CSE's by which to integrate these ideas if all pupils are to be so exposed.

3. An approach through courses in which personal values are considered—e.g., humanities, social education, moral education.

4. A course in careers education as such.

5. A broad course in personal, social and careers education.

In some cases this area may be covered in tutorial groups.

In analyzing these five broad approaches as well as a variety of documents concerning careers education in Britain and in the U.S.A., Watts and Herr (1976) contend that from the standpoint of socio-political aims career(s) education approaches tend to cluster around one of four emphases. They are:

1. careers education as an agent of social control, adapting individuals to the career opportunities which realistically are open to them

2. careers education as an agent of social change in which students are made aware of how exploitative the employment system is

3. careers education as an agent of individual change which is concerned with raising the aspirations of able students from deprived groups (girls, immigrants, and working-class students)

4. careers education as a non-directive approach in which the aim is to make students aware of the full range of opportunities and to help them be more autonomous in choosing the alternatives suited to their needs and preferences.

As can be seen from these various observations on careers education in Britain, the term is used differently by official and quasi-official agencies and its implementation takes a great many forms. At such a global level, the issues surrounding it and the level of implementation are rather similar to that found in American education. The specific contrasts between career(s) education in

Britain and career education in the U.S.A. will be discussed later. Suffice it to say here that there are some issues indigenous to Britain which might be appropriately noted:

1. As indicated in the DES survey and in other documents, careers education is much less prevalent in British schools than is the set of activities which might be called careers guidance.

2. Careers education has grown almost atheoretically. Except for the conceptual activity sponsored by the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling (NICEC), relatively little theoretical work or research pertinent to the content or implementation of careers education seems to be occurring around the country.

3. Because of both the stress on public examinations and the progressive narrowing down of subjects studied in British education, careers education is likely to be oriented to these choice points.

4. Staff—careers teachers, form tutors, sometimes careers officers—have tended to be "thrown into" careers work rather than prepared for it. This extends as well into the implementation of careers education. While careers work seems to be accepted as a reasonable expectation by secondary schools, there is great variance in the quality and the quantity of careers work taking place.

5. There is a divergence of opinion about whether the implementation of careers education requires a special syllabus and a specific place on the schools timetable or whether all aspects of such a program should be coordinated by a careers teacher or a head of a guidance department and included in traditional subject matter.

6. Careers work frequently takes place in the fourth and fifth years of secondary school (14, 15, 16) after the students are faced with highly critical educational choices at age 13+, the third year of secondary school. The DES survey previously discussed indicated that only 25 percent of schools offer a career education course in the third year. Indeed, this very significant process of course choice in the third year with its diverse career implications is frequently dealt with by no more guidance than a hand-out explaining course choice available or an assembly for students explaining such choices with the expectation that students and their parents would then choose appropriately (Reid, Barnett, & Rosenberg, 1974).

7. Because of the dominance of the subject examination system (CSE and GCE "0" levels) in the secondary school, many teachers are reluctant to

undertake careers work in their classes or they believe that if careers education is a respectable undertaking that it ought to have its own CSE or GCE examination.

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR IN BRITAIN

Counseling in Britain is often described as something which form tutors, careers teachers, headmasters and others do as part of their pastoral care responsibilities. However, a functionary known as a school counsellor and professionally trained for this task is a relatively new arrival on the British scéne.

Daws (1976) contends that no educational innovation has ever appeared in Britain "with such startling suddenness as the counselling movement." With relatively few official statements about the needs for counsellors in 1965, the Universities of Keele and Reading began one-year full-time training courses for experienced teachers to be prepared as school counselors. Other universities soon joined Keele and Reading extending the training of counselors into preparation for higher education roles as well as secondary schools.

Forces Shaping the Counselor's Emergence and Role

The emergence of school counselors was spawned by many of the factors described in the beginning of this report. More particularly, Daws, a major historian of the counseling movement in Britain, ascribes much importance to the rapid social change and related difficulties of inter-generational communication which characterized the 1960's as well as a growing mental health movement in secondary education. He argues that through the 1960's there has been "a substantial and quietly influential minority of teachers who have achieved a sympathetic, even empathetic, insight into the confusions and uncertainties that trouble young people and who feel compassion for them because they see clearly the pain and misery that lies behind so much of what other adults see as troublesome and delinquent behavior. . . . they have tried to find more effective ways of relating to them and of enabling them to develop the competencies and maturities necessary to come to meaningful terms with the changing world around them" (p. 9).

Daws suggests that as a result of the concern of these teachers with wider educational objectives than simply academic ones and a concern with mental health no less than with mental excellence such persons both gravitated to counseling roles and to being supportive of such roles in schools. He further argues that another principle underlying the movement toward counselors in schools is "an individuality principle: every child is unique; one should respect his uniqueness and protect it" (p. 10).

Daws contends that the new consciousness of mental health responsibility in schools is related to the rise of specialized guidance roles, more effective pastoral care organizational structures, and increasing collaboration between schools and external helping agencies which have been identified elsewhere in this report.

Daws further argues that at its point of initiation, school counseling in Britain actually had two contrasting parents: vocational guidance and mental health. The funding and founding of the first courses was due to needs for training of persons in vocational guidance, but the mental health movement actually shaped their content and vitality. Broad matters concerned with the personal development and mental health of children rather than educational and vocational guidance in their narrower connotations shaped the first courses in school counseling and in a sense set the directions and emphases of such practitioners to the present time (p. 23). An important part of these developments was the fact that most of the first Britons teaching in school counseling courses in the universities had been trained primarily as educational psychologists. Thus, they were oriented to special and remedial education, to the needs of the distressed and troubled children rather than to careers work.

Daws' perspective that school counseling is a response to a growing mental health emphasis in British education can also be reinforced by noting that the National Association for Mental Health has itself been quite supportive of school counselors. For example, in its 1970 document, *School Counselling*, the NAMH divides the school population into three groups—those needing help with normal developmental needs, those needing help to make choices, and those having pathological needs for clinical help—and regards the school counselor as having a contribution to make to all three kinds of cases. For a fledging group of specialized practitioners, this type of endorsement is heady support. Some school counselors tended to feel that dealing with personal counseling and those who are distressed and confused is more prestigious and rewarding than what in their judgment was more routine and simple: careers work. The endorsement of school counselors by a mental health group such as the NAMH obviously will shape one's focus if at the same time others are reluctant to grant school counselors social approval. At least one of the constraints on school counselor endorsement has been the tendency by some British educators to view manifestations of feeling and emotion, the content with which school counselors deal, as "bad form", not areas to devote limited school resources to (Hughes, 1971). In contrast, NAMH's endorsement provided a rallying point and an antidote to such non-support.

Another important factor in the development and shape of school counseling in Britain, according to Daws, was the predilection of the first American Fulbright lecturers in Keele and Reading toward client-centered

counseling. In contrast to more authoritarian conceptions of teaching, Daws argues that the Rogerian approach to counseling left no doubt that teaching and counseling are very different activities and that the relationships and roles are strikingly different. Thus, the incorporation of client-centered counseling predisposed counselors also toward personal counseling and to roles which manifested techniques and purposes much different from those embraced by many teachers. Law (1976) agrees with Daws about the influence of Rogers in his observation that Rogers is the one American theorist to whom all sources refer as a major influence.

The perspective of Daws about the rise and vitality of school counselors is not shared by some other observers. There are those who feel that counselors have failed to manifest their early promise and that they have not assumed a significant place in British education. It is clear, for example, that communication between the National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers (NACGT) and the National Association of Counselors in Education (NACE), the organization for school counselors, is less than open and comprehensive. Heppel (1976) who has been previously identified as the President of the NACGT, believes that many people view the school counselor as an outsider, one with minimal teaching experience, not really part of the staff. Heppel indicates that the most successful school counselors he has seen are those who have been teaching in a school, gone away to be trained and then come back to the same school where they are well known and where the head makes sure to integrate the counselor into some teaching or group assignment.

Existing research studies at Manchester (100 teachers) and at Exeter (1,757 teachers) take a somewhat less negative view of the acceptance of the school counselor by teachers. The Exeter study (Lytton, Kline, & Webster, 1970) indicated that grammar school (college preparatory) teachers were less welcoming to counselors than teachers in secondary modern or comprehensive schools; men believed less than women teachers that counselors could both teach and counsel. The Manchester study (Freeman, 1973) did not show that teachers had high expectations for counselor effectiveness or that they welcomed these specialists with open arms. But neither did it show widespread hostility to the school counselor. The general trend in both the Exeter and the Manchester studies seemed to be that teachers really were confused about both the training and the role of the counselors although they thought that pupils needed more individual help than schools were now giving them regardless of what that source was.

Law (1976), a senior fellow at the National Institute of Careers Education and Counselling who is also completing a Ph.D. thesis (University of London) on the role of the school counselor in Britain, describes the evolution and the status of the counselor somewhat differently from either Daws or Heppel. For

example, Law analyzes the communication or lack of communication between the National Association of Counsellors in Education, the smaller association focussing primarily on the practice of counselling in its emergent and specialized sense, and the National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers, concerned with curriculum development and with the improvement of techniques and organizational procedures in careers guidance and related guidance work in schools, as functions of the different stands of each of these organizations in regard to ingression versus egression. An "ingressive" approach, according to Law, sees the idea of counseling having its origins outside of teaching, as a specialization developed elsewhere and brought to education as a fertilizing but essentially intrusive and perhaps even subversive activity which can be produced in schools alongside the practice of teaching. In this sense, a counselor is a counselor and the school is only one place to apply the special skills it represents. An "egressive" approach to counseling, on the other hand, has its roots in teaching, is a part of every complete teaching role, is a specialization which can facilitate the objectives of teaching and shares in the ideology of teaching. That is to say that the organization of counselors, NACE, is concerned with bringing into schools principles and practices which have not been there before. The school counselors organization does not identify itself as composed of teachers practicing counseling but rather as a specialized and trained group of persons giving the school dimensions which have not previously been present. This perspective is manifested both by its recent change of name from the National Association of Educational Counsellors to the National Association of Counsellors in Education as well as its credo which cites those aspects of the counselor which distinguishes him from the teacher in the school. This document (NAEC, 1972) identifies these features as follows:

1. The counsellor's greater accessibility to the client.
2. The voluntary nature of the counsellor-client relationships.
3. The non-authoritarian stance of the counsellor.
4. The specific skills of the counsellor.
5. The specialized knowledge of the counsellor.
6. The counsellor's focus upon the 'personal meanings' of the child.

In some contrast, the members of the National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers indicate that they see themselves as teachers who are evolving certain specialized provision for what has already been happening in schools: careers work (McIntyre, 1970). Thus, they represent an egression, an evolution within the ranks of teachers and the school rather than something new brought into the school.

Law takes a somewhat broader view than Daws of the forces shaping or giving impetus to the rise of school counseling. Moving beyond the global categories of mental health or vocational guidance, he cites a range of perceived

needs which various observers have associated with the need for school counselling (Chapter 1). Without all their supporting references, these include:

–incidence among adolescents of maladjustment

–the incidence of suicides and suicidal gestures among adolescents

–the increasing incidence of indictable offenses among adolescents

–the alleged escalation of problems connected with the sexual, drug-taking, violent, and intimidating behavior of young people

–increased social and domestic stress associated with inadequate parental support

–broken homes, the increase in family mobility and the consequent loss of support from the extended family

–the potentially deterimental effect of the media, particularly television

–the decline of the influence of religion upon adolescents

–the increasingly heterogenous, pluralistic and multiracial nature of British society and its confusing effect upon the young

–larger schools with less opportunity for personal contact

–the phasing out of selection at 11+ and the diversification of opportunity for more children

–a means of compensating children who fail to benefit from the education service because they are penalized by deprivations associated with social class, unstimulating home environments, restricted language codes and with the ineffective or inequitable selection methods used by some education authorities

–the need to identify and develop the flow of appropriately schooled talent to an increasingly technology-based economy

–the need to improve the transmission of social and moral education

–to develop social skills

–to relieve the unhappiness of self-doubting adolescents

What School Counselors Do

As has been implied at several points in this report, school counselors do many different things in British secondary schools. There is no definitive set of tasks or role functions which they perform. Indeed, it seems fair to suggest that the differences between subject matter teachers or careers teachers and school counselors is not so much in the tasks they are assigned but in the approaches and purposes the school counselors bring to their tasks. The influence of specialized training, heavily imbued with a non-directive flavor, tends frequently to shape school counserlor approaches rather distinctly.

The absence of a uniform role in British secondary schools may be a function of school counselor numbers. At present, estimates are that there are not more than 500 school counselor posts in Britain (including England and Wales). There are currently 262 members of the National Association of Counselors in Education. Approximately 100 trained school counsellors are becoming available each year although they are not all finding posts. This is far less than one school counselor to each secondary school. For example, in the whole of Cambridgeshire, a large county, north of London, there are only two school counselors in the county. Thus, school counselors are relatively rare and they are scattered thinly throughout the country. As compared with the numbers of careers teachers or careers officers for example, they apparently do not have the critical mass or the wide-spread acceptance to be prescriptive of their function in the school.

Studies have begun to emerge which describe the types of activities in which school counselors are most likely to engage. An early Schools Council survey (1967) indicated that the first graduates of school counselor courses by frequency of numbers of persons engaged in each activity were involved in:

–careers guidance, vocational preparation, including individual interviews

–counseling for personal problems

–liaison and co-operation with outside agencies (welfare services, school psychologists, probation officers and so on)

–psychometric services; systematic testing programmes and administration of certain tests with individuals

–maintenance of cumulative records

–guidance activities with groups

--interviews with parents

--participating in curriculum planning and experimentation

--helping colleagues at their request.

In 1970, Thompson intensively studied the work of twenty-five trained school counselors. Here, too, a wide range of activities made up the work of counselors including:

personal counseling
group work
consultation with school staff
maintenance of careers information and literature
making and profiling of tests
orientation of new pupils to the school
allocating pupils to choices

In 1973, Bradshaw contacted forty school counselors in fifteen different education authorities in England and Wales. The list of activities in which school counselors engaged was, if anything, even wider than that of the Schools Council or Thompson's list. He lists as the counselor's responsibilities:

liaison with contributory schools
testing and allocating newcomers
educational guidance for courses and options
vocational guidance
delinquents and court reports
personal counseling of children with problems
social work involving problem children from deprived families
contacts with social agencies
interviews with parents (including home visists)
checking attendance registers and subsequent home visits
consultation with teachers
guidance to student and probationary teachers
teaching

In 1974, Antonouris obtained a sample of 229 persons who were trained as school counselors. These 229 counselor-trained persons fell into six categories at the time of his study: 87 were working as school counselors; 34 were students on full-time counseling courses; 36 were counselor-trained teachers who held senior positions within their schools; 20 were teachers trained in counseling but working in other non-counseling positions; 29 were people who had decided to use their skills outside their school; and 23 were associate

members of the NACE (teachers interested in counseling and guidance or persons with minimal or no training who were employed in school counseling positions or other pastoral care positions). This is the largest and most representative sample of school counselors in Britain yet reported in the professional literature. The findings are, however, much like those which preceded it. In sum, Antonouris stated:

> "... the overall pattern that emerges is one of considerable diversity. Teachers trained as counsellors have entered various occupational groups and have occupied a multitude of positions, both within and outside education: counsellors, teachers, lecturers, advisers, education officers, community service organizers, education welfare officers, youth workers and social care officers. There is no such thing as the career of a counsellor trained teacher. Similarly, there is no one definition of the counsellor's role. . . . Diversity and flexibility are the concepts which best describe the present situation."

My discussions in 1976 with counselors, school heads, careers teachers, careers officers, counselor trainers, and other education officials indicate that the range of activities in which school counselors engage continues to be wide. The notion which lists of functions or activities do not portray is that school counselors are used in many instances as referral sources for students in need of personal counseling. This assumes, of course, that teachers in a particular school have some respect for their competence. Quite aside from the list of activities in which they are shown repeatedly to engage, they seem to be perceived by most observers as more involved with special groups of students, e.g., the maladjusted and troubled, than with total student populations. This may be why, even though most school counselors engage in some form of teaching assignment, they continue to be perceived by many persons as marginal or attached rather than integral parts of school staff.

The ambiguity and differences of school counselor role in Britain has triggered a continuing debate about whether counselors should in fact be therapists for particular groups. In a recent article, Daws (1973) has indicated that although school counseling is concerned primarily with prevention rather than with care, in practice the urgent needs of the wayward and the sick leave little time for genuinely preventive work. "The reality of the counsellor's current position is that he commonly finds he is the only trained person to serve 800 or more pupils, and is given only a part-time counseling brief anyway. . . . More often than not, crisis-counseling occupies most of his time. He may be asked to deal with the most disturbed children in the school on the grounds that this is where the greatest need lies and that his training fits him better than anyone else in the school to understand them and help them. The counsellor may therefore undertake supportive work with such children,

working in close cooperation with the specialist psychomedical services and perhaps also with parents. Certainly a strong case could be made for such a therapeutic counsellor, but such work can only be termed preventive on the grounds that terrible situations should at least be prevented from becoming unendurable."

Maguire (1975) put the case for the counselor as a therapist more directly than virtually any other theorist when she states:

> School counselling in Britain is now almost a decade old. It remains preventive rather than remedial in its objectives, and is unambiguously orientated towards answering the developmental needs that predictably arise in the lives of normal children. The case for a psychotherapeutic counsellor in the school has never been put, let alone refuted. Yet recent epidemiological studies of disturbance among children suggest that at least five percent of children merit specialist psychomedical attention. Existing psychological and psychiatric services for such children can treat little more than one per cent and it is often cynically pointed out that the waiting list is the most effective therapeutic agent.

The School Counselor's Role in Educational Change

It is difficult to measure the school counselors' role in advancing educational change in Britain. While they were brought into schools as part of an advancing concern with mental health and personal development in schools, their skills seem to be used in diffuse ways and often in quasi-administrative roles. The numbers of school counselors trained and employed has not kept pace with the expectations either of the government or of many local observers. It is a widely held perception that the economic cut-backs and general austerity in education has prevented local education authorities from being able to release teachers for school counselor training or, indeed, employ them in such roles when they are trained. Even when employed, only 31.9 percent of the sample of school counselors included in Law's study report that they are able to commit full-time to 'counselling' and interviewing work and 23.6 per cent indicate they can commit less than half to such emphases.

It is also suggested by many observers that economic restraints have diminished some of the promise of educational reform which was present in the 1960's and created a "back to basics" mentality which is not highly supportive of mental health emphases in schools. There is an undeniable sense that school counselors are primarily holding their own and preserving what progress they have made rather than being engaged in major efforts to bring about educational change in schools. Halmos (1974), a sociologist from

University College, Cardiff, however, does not see the school counselor as an educational change agent. He argues that the central fact of counseling is the use of the counselor's total and global personality in effecting changes in the personality of the client. . . . "Counseling therefore is a personalistic process not a political role." He believes that the movement to politicize the counseling profession by arguing that it is a piecemeal solution to man's problems, a desertion of moral duty to change evil systems, or a distraction from the really important public miseries inflicted on many by these systems is mistaken. He believes that while there is room for political action by those inclined and capable of dealing with the skills and predilections such actions require, no social system can come about and exist without a generously staffed personal service (counseling) to individuals. He thus believes counseling should be protected and apparently that it will survive.

A different position from that of Halmos of the school counselor's role in educational change has been put forward by Antonouris (1975). After examining the nature of various school counselor training courses, he contends that they lack in varying degrees, a comparative perspective, a total picture of society and a notion of the social construction of reality. Therefore, Antonouris argues that school counselors show (a) an inability to move outside established frames of reference, (b) a concentration upon micro-problems concerning the child, his family and his neighborhood in isolation from the wider social context and (c) an acceptance of commonsense assumptions about education as absolute realities rather than as social constructs. He observes that "though intending to be change agents safeguarding the interests of pupils, counsellors are insufficiently helped to examine critically the institutional and societal framework of education, and will be likely therefore to continue to operate primarily as the servants rather than the critics of their employing institutions." He argues that school counsellors need more sociology, both sociological analyses of one's own culture as well as perspectives on societies and cultures different from one's own, and work in comparative education and cultural anthropology.

Daws (1976a) would likely take exception to the view that school counseling has not affected educational change or that counselors are not equipped to facilitate it. Obviously, it depends upon what the magnitude or, indeed, the characteristics of educational change are as defined by the specific observer. In defense of his thesis that schools which have introduced counseling have experienced positive change, he cites the following gains which counseling has stimulated:

- to alert teachers to the distinction between what the school or society judges to be the problems of children and what the children themselves report about the nature of their problems.

–instead of a simple moralistic set which sees children as either naughty or mentally deranged, a more extensive range of factors is now considered as potentially significant in the causation of children's behavior and indeed a wider range of behavior now attracts the vigilance of schools as of possible 'clinical' significance than simply those behaviors that teachers disapprove.

–an enhanced awareness of the importance of the relationship as a crucial variable in the effective influence of children's behavior by adults.

–a new conception of the school's responsibility for the formation of character.

To the degree that such changes are actually taking place in practice, the stimulus value of school counselors in educational change seems to be clear. It is doubtful that all school counselors are serving in this capacity even though some have shown that potential to be educational change agents exists under appropriate sets of conditions.

School Counselor Training

As has been indicated previously, the training of school counselors in Britain began in 1965 at the Universities of Keele and Reading with the help of American Fulbright Lecturers Gilbert Wrenn and Gilbert Moore respectively. Neither of these courses was initially conceived as a course in counseling, but rather as a guidance course with an emphasis on educational and vocational guidance and the investigation and remedy of underachievement. By 1967, school counselor training also was taking place at Exeter, Leeds, and Manchester Universities, several colleges of education, under a consortium or agreement among some secondary schools, and in a less direct way by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations (Schools Council, 1967).

Initially, Keele University awarded a Diploma of Advanced Study in Education with special reference to counselling in school. Originally candidates eligible for the course had to be full-time teachers with at least five years of teaching in any kind of secondary school who were sent by their school on full salary for the full school year. In general, such a requirement has prevailed. The general view of the Keele program was that counseling would put extra resources into a school with the counselor being "a resource person in the field of personal relationships." The curriculum involved three special courses: counselling in schools, educational psychology, educational administration. In addition to special courses, a dissertation and practical work were required. Practical work in this case involved child studies, observations of the work of

the child guidance clinic (e.g., demonstrations of individual tests), role playing and supervised counseling experience and counseling practice in schools.

In 1965, the University of Reading offered a Diploma in Educational Guidance. The content of the program for counselors included: foundations studies, studies related to the growing child, studies relating to adult life, and the practice of guidance.

The program at Reading tended to view the work of school counselors a bit different from that held by Keele. The staff at Reading saw guidance as a helping process which includes a number of services of which counseling is one. "If we think of guidance as a rope, counseling is one of the strands in the rope" (Schools Council, 1967). The pattern and emphases of Keele and of Reading continue to the present modified primarily by new knowledge and techniques but generally consistent since 1965 in philosophy and type of student enrolled.

Counseling in England did not emerge from some coherent and systematic theory of counseling or behavioral change. Rather, it largely adopted a number of American themes and applied these within the predispositions, training and previous experiences of the respective course heads. Thus, in one sense, each of the counselor training programs in Britain has its own distinctive emphasis although there are certainly commonalities in the general preparation intent and the kinds of students which are trained.

While a client-centered flavor to counselor training tends to be deeply engrained in the attitudes and approaches conveyed to counselor candidates, other approaches are present or likely to emerge as school counseling in Britain moves toward maturity (Thoreson, 1974; Daws, 1976). However, much of the research which appears in the major journals used by school counselors or counselor-trainees tends to emphasize questions concerned with the acquisition by counselor candidates of client centered skills. For example, Ronaldson and Evison (1975) have recently reported the outcomes of a program to improve client-centered skills through a microteaching format. In essence, the researchers took pre- and post-measures of skill in regard to a 45 minute recorded interview with a client and recorded responses to stimulated clients using a language laboratory. The findings were that significant changes were found between the pre- and post-course measures. Nelson-Jones, alone and in collaboration with Professor C. H. Patterson of the United States, has also reported on a number of findings of the effects of counselor training and the measurement of such effects from a client-centered perspective (Nelson-Jones, 1974; Nelson-Jones, & Patterson, 1974; Nelson-Jones, & Patterson, 1976).

By American standards the training courses for counselors in Britain are relatively few in number (in 1975, 13 diploma courses in universities and

polytechnics). In addition to those previously identified, several polytechnics and several other universities (e.g., London University, College of St. Hild and St. Bede at Durham University) are now offering diploma courses in school counseling. Examples of the characteristics of these programs can be seen in the proposal of the North East London Polytechnic and in the program at the College of St. Hild and St. Bede, Durham University. North East London Polytechnic will offer a Diploma in Counselling and Pastoral Care with special reference to schools (North East London Polytechnic, 1976). As the proposal indicates, the general trend in British schools has been towards a model of counseling in which competent teachers have added counseling skills to their existing teaching skills and then operated as full members of a school staff and of a pastoral care team. The course proposed for North East London Polytechnic follows this trend and intends to provide experienced teachers with professional standards of training and expertise in counseling skills; a clear idea of the boundaries of these skills; and the ability to discriminate and refer to relevant agencies tasks beyond their competence. In this context, counseling is seen as a "caring and developmental process in which the counsellor builds a relationship with the pupil and in his relationship the counsellor encourages:"

(i) the growth of self acceptance in the pupil

(ii) the development of controls from inside the pupil, rather than continuing his reliance upon external checks and pressures

(iii) the learning of relevant and competent coping strategies and of problem solving techniques which are both realistic and viable for that pupil.

At the completion of the course, the student is expected to be able to:

1. Counsel individuals and groups and communicate to colleagues and other agencies the philosophy, theory, and ethics on which his counseling is based.

2. Undertake guidance with groups in vocational, personal, and social education.

3. Organize an effective, practical pastoral care and counseling system for the benefit of all pupils and staff.

4. Be a consultant or resource for other staff engaged in counseling or pastoral care activities, including the training of and support for tutors.

5. Act as liaison between the various pastoral and curricular elements within the school.

6. Act as liaison between the school and relevant outside agencies and understand the social policy governing these agencies.

In this program, students will spend four days per week in studies at the Polytechnic and one day a week at a cooperative school working under supervision. Also offered simultaneously is a diploma course in Career Guidance focused primarily upon persons who want to be careers officers. Candidates do not need to have teaching qualifications or experience although such background does not preclude their entry into the course. Just as in a number of other institutions, this course is given side by side with the school counseling course, but the students involved do not take much, if any, of their academic work together. North East London Polytechnic also offers several advanced short courses in particular topical areas for persons who already have completed a diploma course in counseling or teachers who are engaged in pastoral care or counseling.

At the College of St. Hild and St. Bede, University of Durham, students can pursue school counseling preparation either as a final year of a Bachelor of Education degree or as a separate diploma course. There are also short courses offered for experienced careers teachers, teachers engaged in pastoral care, and counselors. This program also anchors school counseling within the context of education and expects teacher background. Its content stresses the social and emotional development of children and adolescents, the place of guidance in education, procedures for understanding the student, types of counseling, educational guidance, vocational guidance, the ethics of counseling, preparing case studies, personal counseling, and other agencies. Unlike most other courses, the one at Durham acknowledges the possibility of providing school counseling in the primay schools (Dockray, 1976).

While the programs at Keele, Reading, North East London Polytechnic and Durham are exemplary of formal school counselor training in Great Britain, several other elements are worth noting. One is that Scotland is very different from England in regard to school counselor training. Indeed, in Scotland, there are no school counselors. Rather, there are guidance teachers who tend to blend the roles of the English careers teachers and school counsellors (Miller, 1976). Guidance teachers in Scotland do personal counseling, careers work, and teaching. They are basically part-time in this role. Second, there is no full-time counselor training (or guidance teacher training to be accurate) in Scotland. All such training is done in short courses (usually two days to one week in duration) although the College of Education at Dundee is planning to develop a two year diploma course for guidance teachers which could be completed by candidates on a one day each week basis interspersed with three two week residential periods during the two-years. At present, many local-authorities do their own training of guidance teachers. Dundee College of

Education provides short courses in conjunction with local education authorities. Currently there are only two other colleges in Scotland (Jordan Hill and Notre Dame in Glasgow) which offer any training for guidance teachers. Currently in Scotland, careers education is part of the broader set of guidance emphases. As such it often gets lost in the process.

A final training element in Britain worth mentioning is the work of the National Institute of Careers Education and Counselling (NICEC) in creating modules which can be used for short courses or fitted into existing full-time courses. Each module incorporates some theoretical discussion, exercises and simulation material, plus an opportunity for the discussion of the application of the module emphasis to the problems of the particular courses members present at each site. The modules are tutored by a member of the Institute academic or field staff. Modules currently available include:

co-ordinating a careers guidance programme
collecting and interpreting information about students
design of a careers education curriculum
introduction to interviewing
interviewing skills and strategies
Connally occupational interests questionnaire
Crowley occupational interests questionnaire and occupational check-list
teaching decision-making

NICEC is also involved in other activities beside training. In collaboration with the Careers Research and Advisory Center (CRAC) it is sharing in stimulating materials, games, articles, and books dealing with careers education and other topics pertinent to guidance and to counselling. More particularly, NICEC staff are engaging in research on the application of computers to guidance tasks and careers guidance activity in the secondary schools. In September 1976, Donald Super, Professor Emeritus, Columbia University, will join the NICEC staff to begin a research effort into questions regarding the formation of a career development theory appropriate to Britain, the nature of career exploration for the 12-19 age group and the place of self concept theory in career choice (NICEC, 1976).

Issues in School Counselor Training

Aside from Scotland which does not have school counselors, issues affecting the training of school counselors in Great Britain include:

1. Should the counselor act also as a teacher? Currently school counselors must first have five or more years of teaching before being prepared in

counseling. In addition, once employed most school counselors continue to teach on a part-time basis. There is growing concern among counselor trainers about whether such an admissions requirement or a teaching assignment after training really is an appropriate use of counselor trained manpower. Inherent in this debate is a wide concern about the general matter of appropriate criteria for selecting would-be counselors.

2. Should counselors really assume overall coordination for the pastoral care scheme of a school or simply be a team member or, indeed, a referral source for other pastoral care workers? Many counselors would like to be in charge of the pastoral care system and indeed reform its current structure. Other persons in the school tend to disagree. There is a fear in some circles that the counselor is being too ambitious.

3. There are concerns about the lack of systematic and extended training for many persons engaged in counseling. The tasks these persons are asked to take care of frequently require far more skill than can be imparted in short courses or even in a diffuse one-year program.

4. Since most British students leave school at an earlier age than most American students, there is a growing question about the viability of a client-centered approach to counseling. While this flavor to counseling will likely endure, there are a number of persons who are pushing for greater eclecticism and more active counseling in the secondary schools.

5. Because of the presence of careers teachers and careers officers in schools, there is a question among many persons of the rationality of also preparing school counselors to undertake careers work. The advocates of such emphases in counselor training and role would argue that what careers teachers or careers officers do is not counseling but trait-matching–a far more limited approach than could be accomplished by counselors.

6. Should counselors be present in the primary schools? At present, counselors are only located in secondary schools. Can a preventive or developmental guidance program occur if it does not begin in the elementary school?

7. Should counselors be primarily the agents of educational change, particularly as it applies to opening up or liberalizing the attention of schools to mental health and individualization? Some persons believe that this over-generalizes the counselor's role and requires training different from the current content of most training programs.

CONTRASTS BETWEEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN EXPERIENCES

Careers Education

Career(s) education in Britain as compared to career education in the U.S.A. has recently been contrasted by Watts and Herr (1976) on four dimensions: length, depth, breadth, constraints of the school environment.

With regard to *length*, career education in the U.S.A. has been seen as a process beginning in kindergarten and extending systematically through the graduate school. In Britain, however, career(s) education begins at age 13+ and terminates for most persons at age 16. Thus, career(s) education in Britain is focused on the central portion of the adolescent exploratory period including in some respects the transition of school-leavers to work. Although there is no doubt that much of what takes place in British primary and middle schools is pertinent to career(s) education, it is not coordinated and integrated into an avowed process of facilitating pupil career development. Neither are various experiences related to helping students attain self-understanding or choice facility in further and higher education considered part of career(s) education by an official statement.

From the standpoint of *depth*, the major approach in the U.S.A. has been to infuse career education into traditional subjects in the curriculum rather than establishing it as a new subject in the curriculum. The reasons for such an approach would include the lack of counterpart personnel to those of careers teachers in British schools. Unless the U.S.A. trains a whole cadre of career specialists for the classroom, assigns such a task to existing vocational educators or to school counselors, personnel to teach a stand-alone curriculum in career education do not exist. There are also professional and curriculum groups which have vested interests in the existing curriculum which would make the introduction of a new and independent curriculum difficult in many American schools. Finally, the American approach tends to be predicated on a need to effect a total reorientation of all curricula around the aim of helping students to identify and develop their individual abilities and interests, to relate these to ways by which educational opportunities can be more purposefully selected, and to develop career planning and preparation skills. This requires either the introduction to or the sharpening within each subject area of emphases which may not have been there before the impetus of career education and, as such, however subtly, tends to reset curricular gyroscopes toward modified educational directions. In Britain, however, while there is some rhetoric about infusing all subject matters with career(s) education concepts and exercises, the reality is that such emphases are primarily contained within what careers teachers do. Thus, the situation tends to cause career(s) education to be

something which specialists do, which is not timetabled for public examinations, and which therefore is not a central part of the educational mission for all pupils or a way of increasing the instrumental quality of education for greater numbers of students than is now true.

A third difference between the American and British approaches to careers education has to do with *breadth*. The school-based model in America and its local refinements has typically included three emphases: awareness, exploration and preparation. The first two of these with their focus on such aspects as self awareness, educational awareness, career awareness, economic awareness, and decision-making tend to be compatible with the first three elements of the typical British model: self-awareness, opportunity awareness, and decision-making. But the final American emphasis on career preparation including such elements as beginning competency, employability skills and attitudes and appreciation is not totally compatible with the final element in most British models: preparation for transition. In Britain, the career(s) education movement in schools has been kept separate from the concern for vocational training. It has respected the traditional British view that vocational training should be left to employers and to other post-school institutions like colleges of further education.

The fourth contrast between American and British perspectives on career(s) education lies with concerns for school imposed restraints. Unlike the American models which go beyond the formal school context (e.g., the employer/experience based model, the home/community based model, the rural disadvantaged/residential based model), Britain has primarily concerned itself with developing a secondary school based approach. While questions are beginning to emerge from such groups as the Training Services Agency of the Manpower Services Commission about whether career(s) teaching in schools is effective and the need to establish post-school 'gateway' courses which would cover much of what career(s) education courses focus on, the school based approach seems strongly embedded in Britain.

School Counselor Role

The contrasts between Britain and America in relation to school counselor role are not as dramatic as is true in career(s) education. In both nations, the professional organizations representing school counselors talk of the role of these persons in preventive activities; they emphasize their focus on helping students resolve normal developmental needs. In both Britain and America, the original training courses began as responses to needs for people trained to do educational and vocational guidance even though the content of school counselor training and what they actually do goes beyond these domains. In

both Britain and America the functions in which school counselors actually engage are quite diverse and largely dictated by the policies and characteristics of the school setting in which they are employed rather than by the counselor's training.

In general, it seems fair to suggest that school counselors in Britain more than in America are engaged with special groups of students who reflect maladjustment or institutionally defined problems of some sort. In large measure, this allocation of school counselor's time seems to occur because of limitation in the psychological services available, either from LEA's or the National Health Service, to help schools with problem children. Since the school counselor is seen as having the most pertinent training within the school staff to assist with such students, they become his responsibility, to the detriment of opportunities to work in developmental ways with the total school population.

Another major contrast between school counselors in Britain and the U.S.A. is in their selection and in their time commitments. In Britain, with almost no exceptions, persons entering school counselor training are first teachers. In most instances, they must have had five years of successful secondary school teaching before they are admitted to counselor training. In America such requirements have been significantly loosened. Many states no longer require school counselor candidates to have either teaching experience or teaching qualifications to be considered for school counselor certification. As a result, many counselor education programs in the U.S.A. no longer require school counselor candidates to have teaching experience and qualifications but admit them from a wider spectrum of the college-trained population than is true in Britain. Britain's continued use of successful teaching experience as a prerequisite to counselor training also reflects the realities of counselor time assignments on the job. As reported elsewhere in this report, relatively few of Britain's school counselors are full-time; most have teaching assignments in subject areas of half-time or more. In this respect, they resemble the earlier American models of the teacher-counselor, a role allocation now largely abandoned.

A final major contrast between American and British school counselors is in the educational levels in which they reside. In Britain, "elementary school counselors" do not exist nor are there many in the middle schools. The primary availability of school counselors is in the secondary school, principally with pupils 13 to 16 years of age.

School Counselor Training

Patterns of school counselor training bear considerable similarity in Britain and the U.S.A. Early and continuing American influence in organizing and

teaching courses has been wide-spread. The works of American theorists such as Carl Rogers and Donald Super have been used extensively as conceptual input to counselor training.

Most school counselor training courses in Britain are mixes of the theoretical (in-class) and the practical (on-site in school). While no data on the matter exists, the general impression is that school counselor training in Britain emphasizes less theory and more observation and supervised practice than does the typical American program. Indeed, even in the didactic aspects of British school counselor training, there seems to be more of a tutorial, individual project base than large group instruction. Undoubtedly, the latter is at least partially a function of smaller classes and programs in Britain than is true in the typical American situation. On the average, all of the school counselor training programs in Britain together produce about 100 trained school counselors each year. Many of the 400+ American counselor education programs produce that many school counselors alone each year (I do not applaud the latter, simply report the contrast.)

In general, students in counselor education programs in Britain are older than in America. This seems to be primarily a function of the extensive teaching experience required of candidates for school counselor training or posts. Until recently, most of these persons were seconded by their schools (paid full salary and sent for training), but economic austerity is diminishing such opportunities. Whether this will ultimately cause a lowering of the teaching requirement for admission to counselor training or a greater emphasis on part-time, as opposed to full-time, training or some other combination of possibilities is not now clear.

Another contrast of the British versus American system of counselor training is in the extent to which in-service education is used. In Scotland, all the training which guidance teachers (who largely fill the role which school counselors occupy in England) receive is in-service. Typical patterns are to intersperse one day in-service courses with residential periods of five days or so. While England does have full- and part-time school counselor (as well as careers teacher) training, counselor trainers are also likely to engage in quite a bit of in-service work in LEA's, often as part of the initial and perhaps only training of some persons. In America, in-service training for school counselors and others is quite frequently provided but typically not for entry level training.

Educational Change

The degree of educational change which has occurred in either Britain or the United States during the past decade is difficult to estimate. How much is

evolutionary or revoluntionary is a matter of considerable conjecture. Both nations have undergone considerable criticism during this period about the quality and the direction of education. In both cases, it seems clear that much of the education provided for the academically interested and capable is quite good. However, whether the form and characteristics of education for the non-academically capable is appropriate is far less assured either in America or in Britain.

If the degree of educational change in either country is elusive, it is possible to contrast some of the approaches to and the intent of educational change in each. In Britain the most major changes are structural and legislatively mandated. The first most far-reaching was the creation of comprehensive secondary schools to replace the grammar and modern schools which separated children on intellectual, and to some degree socioeconomic, bases. The comprehensive schools will and are mixing intellectual and social groups into one setting. The second most far reaching change was the mandate to phase out the '11+' examination and thus advance the possibility of choice of educational opportunities among wider groups of students and for a longer period of time than had been possible previously. Both of these changes have struck very deeply into the traditional British system of education and even though the changes they have wrought continue to be absorbed by the schools they are not without their opponents.

During the same period of comprehensivization and the phasing out of the 11+, American has passed the Elementary and Secondary Acts including Title III and its amendments, the Vocational Education Act and its amendments and various other landmark pieces of legislation. Without gainsaying the importance of the fiscal support to education they provided or the philosophical commitment to certain educational ideals they represent, their impact on American education has tended to be more subtle than is true in Britain. Educational reform is argued in persuasive terms but has not been mandated in any widespread way in the U.S.A.

What the ultimate result of the direct structural changes to education effected in Britain will be as compared with the American approach of exemplary projects, experimental studies, persuasion, and fiscal leverage is still hard to know. Both the British and American systems of education are dynamic and in flux. Whether the changes occurring in either direct or oblique ways will effect the educational outcomes obtained—the more comprehensive quality of knowledge and skills pupils obtain, better holding power, more effective transition to work—is still to be determined.

IMPLICATIONS FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION

Neither Britain nor America can afford to transplant without caution and deliberation the educational processes or goals of the other. However, each can profit from identifying comparative approaches to certain social problems which are held in common or which are not yet full blown in one nation but already well advanced in the other. The following implications for America can be suggested by the British experience:

1. Careers education is not a solution to unemployment. Britain has generally been clear that careers education is not being introduced to solve unemployment. Rather, Britons have tended to view careers education more as an opportunity to expose students to the variety of roles, occupational and non-occupational, which are open to them. These include family roles, social activist roles, leisure roles, etc. They also emphasize the student's power to determine their personal life styles in the future. The British are also developing and integrating into their careers education content considerable attention to sex role stereotyping and the constraints involved. Unlike many American career educationists, the British typically do not support vocational training in the secondary achool or equipping students with what they consider to be a narrow range of technical skills. They continue to believe that broadly-educated students are more likely to be able to accommodate to occupational and social shifts than are the narrowly trained.

The introduction of careers education in Britain on grounds other than as a solution to unemployment seems to be based on a considerable acceptance of the forecasts of many economists that the present levels of unemployment are essentially permanent in a post-industrial society. With a comprehensive welfare system already in place, which some people believe acts as a disincentive to employment and productivity for many people, many Britons believe that the future will cause work roles to be unavailable for many people and that personal fulfillment will have to come through other roles. The situation in America is not quite the same but there is a propensity to confuse self-awareness and career planning with solving unemployment problems. Separating these two problems would likely sharpen the intent and, indeed, the potential of career education in America and clarify what must be accomplished in job development as well as in career planning and preparation terms.

2. A specific concern for the 16 to 19 age group. In America the transition from school to work of secondary school leavers and graduates has been portrayed in a number of research studies during the past 10 years, as problematic to many young persons. Unemployment rates among this group have been much higher than the adult average and thus much trial and error floundering among jobs occurs. Certainly one of the major dimensions of

concern which career education addresses is the need for employability skills and other coping behaviors related to this transition period. Other observations have been pointed toward the confused placement situation for young people: school counselors have not traditionally or systematically committed themselves to occupational placement of graduates, the involvement of vocational educators in placement of their students into specific jobs has varied greatly among schools and the role of employment service counselors in the placement of school-leavers has not been consistent across the country.

In Britain presently, a variety of steps to directly intervene in the transition of the 16 to 19 age groups to work are now underway. To highlight the problem and give formal support to such efforts, in July 1976, the Secretaries of State for Education and Science and for Employment in England, Scotland, and Wales issued a joint statement on the matter (A Government Statement, 1976). In this statement the government proposes a program of experimental schemes of vocational preparation to begin this autumn which will give priority to the vocational preparation of young people aged 16 to 19. The government's main conclusion is that too little has been done for this group of persons and that the development of new kinds of vocational preparation is an essential preliminary to expanding opportunities for young people. According to the governmental statement, at least part of the trouble in the transition from school to work is attributable to the separate development of education and training. (In Britain the Department of Education and Science is independent from the Department of Employment much in the way Education and Labor are separated in America.) Thus, "for many young people entering the world of work the only available supplement to minimal on-the-job-training has been part-time further education of a kind which is associated in their minds with school and which they are inclined to reject as being no longer appropriate for them." To engage their interest, and win the support of their employers, the government proposes a new and unified approach which includes two essentials:

i that vocational preparation should be jointly planned and provided by the education and training services, and should combine education and training elements inseparably.

ii relevance and realism. The provision made should be clearly seen by young people as work and by employers to be relevant to their needs and should be focussed on the working situation.

The statement continues on to indicate that the education service needs as full an understanding as possible of employers' requirements, while employees need to understand what the educators are seeking to achieve. A further

objective must therefore be to improve the dialogue between the education service and employers.

As has been discussed elsewhere in this report, schools in Britain are responsible for providing general education and certain basic knowledge and skills, for careers education and for imparting some understanding of life at work; the careers service is concerned with vocational guidance and job-finding; and employers are responsible for the induction and specific training of new recruits to meet the requirements of their particular jobs. Beyond these elements, much of the activities in colleges of further education has a vocational or technical preparation objective and many young workers are given day-release to attend courses pertinent to their jobs on a one-day-a-week basis. By and large, vocational education in Britain does not occur in the secondary school but on-the-job or after the secondary school in further education.

Many young people enter work without any organized preparation for it and in the process they experience considerable disillusionment and anxiety. Frequently, their induction into work by employers is very superficial, leading to feelings among the young that no one cares much about what they do or how well they do it. As a result, performance and productivity suffer.

Since most vocational preparation is provided by employers, it tends to be narrowly focused upon the skills required to do a specific job. Thus, the mobility and versatility of workers within a particular firm or in movement between companies, industries, and occupations is sharply restricted. In addition, skills in communication or interpersonal relationships at work are largely neglected in employer-based training.

As a function of the separation between education and training, as described, the educational and training needs of many young people tend not to be identified, their self appraisal and understanding is minimal and their planning for work is less purposeful than it might be.

Thus the intent of the unified approach which the government statement addresses is to set up a series of 20 pilot schemes of 12 weeks full-time (or their part-time equivalent). These schemes will take different approaches which precede or follow the entry to work or which span the transition. These schemes will attempt to incorporate the use of existing resources—e.g., skill centres, colleges of further education, Industrial Training Boards, on-site employer training. Overall, they will try to have vocational preparation directly linked into and built upon what schools can contribute to the process. Finally, the objectives of the vocational preparation scheme will go significantly

beyond the teaching of narrow occupational skills to embrace assistance to young people:

i to assess their potential and think realistically about jobs and careers

ii to develop the basic skills which will be needed in adult life generally

iii to understand their society and how it works

iv to strengthen the foundation of skill and knowledge on which further training and education can be built.

Certainly the concentration of vocational education in America at the secondary school level and the less direct affirmation of employer training of young workers makes the situation different from that of Britain. However, these differences do not negate the implications of British government policy as it has been identified here. For example, many American young people from 16 to 19 are in limbo. The rites of passage from adolescence to adulthood are obscure and adolescents tend to experience considerable identity confusion. They have not developed occupational skills nor do they know to whom to turn to help in the variety of transitions in which they are engaged. Specific focus upon the problems of this age group would be quite appropriate. In addition, the comprehensive American system of vocational education at the secondary school level tends to obscure the extent and character of induction and training processes that employers undertake once the young worker is on the job. Greater clarity in this regard would likely provide feedback to modify secondary school vocational education programs in meaningful terms. Further, the solutions to the effective transitions of young people from school to work goes beyond that which education can handle alone. Intergovernmental cooperation among agencies and between employers and education is essential.

3. Work experience. Work experience and observation rather than vocational education, in American terms, has been a part of British secondary school education in many places.

The Department of Education and Science's 1972 survey indicated that there were nearly 1,900 secondary schools in England and Wales (. . . 38 per cent of all schools) in which a work experience scheme had been developed for at least some pupils (DES, 1973). As Black (1976) has reported, however, the term 'work experience' covers a large range of meanings including:

–half-day visits to places of work (talk and tour)

–linked courses (exchange between schools and technical colleges)

–half-day or one day a week in a working situation (work observation or job tasting)

–work simulation (e.g., Young Enterprise, CRAC Work Experience Projects)

–vacation work

–one week or more in a working situation

This inventory of possible interpretations of work experience suggest that many schools believe that work visits are as meaningful as a period of time actually working in a realistic situation. Several efforts are underway to suggest the inappropriateness of that rationalization.

The Trident Trust Project, for example, aims to give young persons, aged 15 to 19, opportunities for personal experience of three kinds: education for leisure, careers education, and community education. The project operates in ten areas, each of which is coordinated by a person provided by a major industrial or commercial firm. In addition to the support which occurs under the Trident Trust, industry and commerce support the Trust with funds and manpower.

This project does not view work experience as primarily a vocational guidance technique but rather as an opportunity for pupils to have first-hand experience of human situations in work. Rather than job training, the Project believes that the biggest problem for young people starting work is that of understanding and adapting to the dramatic change in personal relationships and environment. It is further believed that the pupil's experience of work should not be isolated from curriculum relationships. Before the pupil goes into the work situation, he should have had an introduction to the world of work and feedback should occur throughout the process. To that end Trident co-ordinators help schools integrate work experience activities into their other educational endeavors. During 1975, 3,000 students from 100 schools were involved and over 600 firms are offering up to 6,000 work experience opportunities throughout the year (Trident Trust, 1975).

The Trade Union Council and the National Union of Teachers have indicated essential agreement on five conditions which should define work experience in Britain. They include:

(a) that any work experience for school children must be an integral part of a properly planned course of general education (which means that any work experience must be preceded and followed by, and closely related

to, teaching sessions at school, with these sessions and the work experience together forming a coherent and recognized course within the school curriculum);

(b) that in the case of any school, a work experience scheme must be designed for pupils of differing abilities and aptitudes and not organized solely for 'non-academic' or 'non-examination' groups;

(c) that all schemes must comply strictly with all the statutory restrictions applying to the employment of children and young persons;

(d) that work experience schemes must provide opportunities for the pupils concerned to have some contact with trade unions at the place of work (the General Council considering, in fact, that no scheme should involve the placing of pupils for work experience employment with non-union companies or establishments);

(e) that all schemes should include effective arrangements for safeguarding the pupils concerned from any hazard to their health and safety (Black, 1976).

Within these conditions, however, is a concern for whether the supply of job opportunities can meet the demand. The Trident Trust Project is now developing recommendations about the future expansion of work experience opportunities. They begin with the fact that there are now two 15 year olds in Britain to every 100 people of working age. It is Trident's judgment that it would not be impossible for employers to take one work experience student for each 50 employees on their payroll once during the academic year. At the present time, many employers with only 10 to 20 employees offer Trident one or two work opportunities per year. Beyond this fact, however, the possibility of providing work experience opportunities for all pupils seems indisputable. Sweden, for example, now requires all students to have two weeks' work experience as part of their last year of compulsory schooling and in Stockholm alone over 18,000 pupils underwent such work experience during 1973-74.

Apparently in response to the pioneering efforts of Trident and similar work experience efforts, in addition to the new vocational preparation approaches identified in item #1, work experience schemes are being extended by the British government to the 16 to 19 aged school leavers. In an effort to cope with the current jobless crisis among young people (roughly 209,000 unemployed in July 1976 out of approximately 750,000 school leavers), the Secretary of Employment has introduced six-month 'experiences' courses in factories. The aim is to provide young people with practical experience in a variety different factory tasks (Sunday Observer, August 1, 1976). A youngster in an

engineering firm under this scheme, for example, would work for short periods in the stores, in the foundry and in the machine shop. Employers would also be encouraged to provide some formal training. The young people would be paid 20£ per week but the employer would have to bear the cost of supervision. At the moment, both the Confederation of British Industry and the unions have encouraged their members to cooperate as a way of displaying their willingness to help out in the present crisis. The unions, however, have voiced some worries about the safety of inexperienced young people in factories and about the possible exploitation of school-leavers by some employers.

While America has a considerable history of work experience opportunities at the secondary school level, the meanings of the term and the availability of such opportunities vary widely across the nation. More specifically, work experience programs have rarely been seen as techniques to facilitate the transition of young people from school-leaving to work. Or, in other instances, the potential of work experience as a method of acquiring specific skill training has not been systematically exploited in America. These areas bear further consideration within the American context.

4. The importance of positive attitudes and motivation to work. Careers education in Britain tends to separate itself from vocational training. Thus, the emphasis is upon pupil attitudes about self and educational or occupational opportunities, rather than the actual training in that occupation. Careers education in Britain then focuses on attitudinal preparation and the psychological dimensions of employability skills rather than the occupational-task specific skills. Given such an approach it appears to be more easy to persuade educators that careers education is integral to general education and not narrowly defined as vocational training or a cosmetic title for vocational education.

Given the American structure and the importance of vocational education as the final segment of most career education models, it may not now be possible to separate career education from vocational education in the minds of many people. If this continues to be true, the infusion approach to subject matter instruction may be quite restricted in many regions of the nation. If so, alternative methods—separate units or courses—may need to be developed if career education understandings are to be delivered to all students.

5. Personnel induction policies. If the problems of school to work transition are to be reduced, it appears that two parallel processes must occur. One is the expansion of career education to all students across the nation with some emphasis on problems of work adjustment, getting along in an organization, interpersonal skills, etc. Second, however, is a concern for more systematic induction by employers of young workers into their jobs. It may

well be that the characteristics of this process of induction rather than the content of work activity itself has much to do with worker alienation. Thus, it could be important for the American government to consider ways to help employers or consortiums of employers give much more attention to the processes of worker induction. It is conceivable that community programs of continuing education in the evening or on a day release basis could supplement employer efforts in this regard. While an additional expense to government, industry or both, the British experience tends to suggest that this process of induction of the young worker is highly critical and may be a key to productivity levels, worker motivation, and persistence in work.

6. Career education needs a conceptual structure. Much of the British effort in careers education tends to be thin on theory or conceptualization. As a result many of the curriculum proposals, including the national Schools Council project, tend to appear as a series of exercises to be introduced into schools to loosen instructional efforts up. But they do not tend to be related to student behaviors or to a systematic rationale. Therefore, many subject-matter teachers, careers teachers, and careers officers with whom I spoke tend to discount these recommendations for change. Regardless of how imaginative the exercises or activities created are, they appear to many persons to be busy work for students rather than integral ingredients of a developmental process designed to affect specific student behaviors.

While some of the American national models of career education may be a bit overly heavy on conceptualization, that would seem to be the better error to make. It also seems necessary to encourage local practitioners to remain attentive to a rationale for what they are doing rather than simply doing it. It seems clear that to make a significant and enduring impact on education at large, career education must stand on a strong and explicit base of purposes and conceptual underpinnings.

7. A broad interpretation of careers education. Rather than separate career education from other types of skills pupils need in the transition to adulthood, the British typically give a broad interpretation of careers education. They likely relate it to other forms of character building and social education underway in schools. The British do not necessarily elevate the importance of careers education in the way America does but see it as a significant part of the general range of concerns that young experience and must learn to cope with.

In this regard, it may be useful for career educationists in America to consider the interface between career education and such other movements as deliberate psychological education, humanistic education, and affective or confluent education. Each of these movements provide testimony to certain types of deficits in the education of the young. It would appear that some

amalgamation of the interests and the concepts shared by these movements might strengthen the impact of all of them, career education included, rather than allowing them to fragment and compete among themselves.

8. Analysis of activities in schools already concerned with meeting the objectives of careers guidance or career education. In many instances, the American literature on career education indicates that many things are already taking place in schools which are pertinent to career education. However, few examples exist of actual attempts to inventory and describe these activities. In analyses that staff members of the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling have made of secondary schools, they have developed a format which seeks out and describes within the community, the school, the school-based career guidance team and the careers services, the resources and their relation to career(s) education objectives which already exist and potentially can be built upon in planning and implementing career education.

Obviously such a diagnostic and planning format would have to be modified to meet American goals or criteria but as Figure 1 shows it represents a highly useful and comprehensive approach. The content of Figure 1 includes representative data for a fictionalized school to illustrate the process.

Figure 1

GUIDANCE DIAGNOSIS AND PLANNING EXERCISE

Name of School _____

Type of School _____ Age Range _____ Number on Roll _____

Boys/Girls/*Mixed* (If applicable – Year Group _____)

_____

NOTES: Inner-city school, virtually no sixth form, poor employment situation.

_____

PART A: THE COMMUNITY

RESOURCES	OBJECTIVES			
Descriptions of Activities	Opportunity Awareness	Self Awareness	Decision Learning	Transition Learning
1. *Parents*				
No formal activities.				
2. *Past Students*				
No activities.				
3. *Other Schools*				
Visit to local careers conventions (normally held annually).	5 (limited; some students)			
4. *Colleges, ITBs etc.*				
No activities.				
5. *Employers*				
a. Some visiting speakers (mainly from large employers).	4-5			
b. Occasional visits to local firms.	4-5 (very limited; some students)			
6. *Other*				
No other activities.				

PART B: THE SCHOOL

RESOURCES	OBJECTIVES			
Descriptions of Activities	Opportunity Awareness	Self Awareness	Decision Learning	Transition Learning
1. *Curriculum*				
a. Civics - some careers information coverage.	5 (limited; some students)			X
b. Mathematics - discussion of wage packets, income tax, etc.				5
2. *Community Service*				
a. Branch library for old people.	5 (limited; few students)		X	
b. Work at local hospitals.	5 (limited; few students)		X	
3. *School Visits*				
Visits to local residential work and leisure community-centre.	5 (some students)	X		
4. *Pastoral Care System*				
No formal or supported involvement in careers education.				

RESOURCES	OBJECTIVES			
Descriptions of Activities	Opportunity Awareness	Self Awareness	Decision Learning	Transition Learning
5. *Social Life of School*				
a. Organisation of discos.	5 (limited; few students)		X	
b. Running school tuck-shop.	5 (limited; few students)		X	
c. Pupils as school receptionists.	5 (limited; few students)		X	
d. Redecoration of school buildings.	5 (limited; few students)			
6. *Other*				
None.				
PART C: SCHOOL-BASED GUIDANCE TEAM				
1. *Careers Education Curriculum*				
a. Programme of occupational awareness incorporating some visits from employers (see A5a), films, *Going to Work* (BBC-TV). No broader coverage of life-styles.	4-5			
b. Some work on self-appraisal using *Bull's Eye* series (CRAC).		4 (limited)		

RESOURCES	OBJECTIVES			
Descriptions of Activities	Opportunity Awareness	Self Awareness	Decision Learning	Transition Learning
c. Some work on decision-making using *Deciding* (CRAC).			4 (limited)	
d. Some work on preparing for leaving using *Bull's Eye* series (CRAC) and classroom discussion on applying for a job.				5
2. *Library/Resources*				
Small display of pamphlets and some storage of filed pamphlets in careers room.	1-5			
3. *Interviewing (inc. Counselling)*				
Careers teacher available one lunch break per week.	X	1-5 (limited)	X	
4. *Reports and Records (inc. Psychometric Testing)*				
a. Battery of aptitude tests administered by careers teacher and Deputy Head, but results not used by them.				
b. Careers Service forms completed by staff on basis of limited information in cumulative record.				

RESOURCES	OBJECTIVES			
Descriptions of Activities	Opportunity Awareness	Self Awareness	Decision Learning	Transition Learning
5. *Small Group Work*				
No activity.				
6. *Co-ordination*				
Careers teacher alerts some teachers in general curriculum to careers guidance potential in their subjects.				
7. *Other*				
None.				
PART D: CAREERS SERVICE				
1. *Careers Education Curriculum*				
Talks—not co-ordinated closely with main careers education curriculum (C1).	4-5 (limited)	X	X	X
2. *Library/Resources*				
Pamphlets made available as required.	5 (some students)			
3. *Interviewing (inc. Counselling)*				
Interviews with all pupils, and some shorter follow-up interviews.	X	X	5	

RESOURCES	OBJECTIVES			
Descriptions of Activities	Opportunity Awareness	Self Awareness	Decision Learning	Transition Learning
4. *Reports and Records (inc. Psychometric Testing)*				
See C4a (interviews include feedback to student of information from Careers Service forms and aptitude test battery).		5		
5. *Small Group Work*				
No activity.				
6. *Co-ordination*				
Very limited.				
7. *Placement*				
Some.			5 (some students)	
8. *Follow-up*				
a. Efforts made to establish relationships which will encourage students to come back if they need to.				
b. List of current employers of previous year's leavers fed back to school.				
9. *Other*				
None.				

9. Career guidance and school counselor roles are political processes. Regardless of the degree to which career guidance or school counseling emphasizes and facilitates individuality among students, both of these processes retain a political character. As educational, social, and occupational changes occur in a society the focus of career guidance and its importance ebbs and flows. Similarly, the characteristics of the setting and the presence or absence of other helping services shape the function and the expectations of school counselors.

Regardless of professional definitions of role, the employing site is the final arbiter of how a school counselor will allocate his or her major functions and the degree to which career guidance will be seen as a priority. Given these realities, it seems foolish to maintain an argument as is sometimes present in American school counselor literature that school counselors can or should operate independently of or be insulated from the educational setting in which they are located. While there is undoubtedly some mutual impact of the counselor on the school environment and vice versa and it is likely that the counselor can be trained to extend his or her impact on the school environment, the fact of school counselor induction to a setting seems to be one of compromise between the professional desires of the school counselor and the needs of the setting.

10. The structure of careers work. The typical British secondary school has at least one careers teacher and the support of the careers officers. In addition to that basic structure a school may have a school counselor engaged in some aspect of careers work and some additional careers education occurring within the traditional subject matter areas. The latter two dimensions cited are rather rare yet in most British secondary schools but the careers teacher and careers officer are basic ingredients. In comparison the typical American secondary school does not have a well-developed careers work structure. Relationships with the U.S. Employment Service are often minimal, and school counselors frequently see career guidance as only one of a great many responsibilities and not necessarily a priority one. Career education in America has been introduced into this context with considerable success through using basically an infusion approach to existing success. In many cases counselors or vocational educators have coordinated these efforts. However, in other instances, career education is either no one's responsibility or that of a temporary project coordinator.

The British experience suggests that it may be useful for America to consider a new form of specialist in career education. The emerging career education coordinators in America may be sufficient to this task bu in addition it may be useful to consider the preparation of guidance or career education teacher specialists whose role might be as a curriculum, materials,

and demonstration resource in implementing career education into various subject matter areas or through other school/community experiences.

11. Direct use of subject matter teachers in careers guidance. In part because of limited career education materials, secondary school teachers have been used by many careers teachers in Britain as resources. In particular, teachers have been asked to discuss with specific students higher education programs which have particular qualities in different subject matter areas, or the application of their subject matter in occupational areas. While it is not known how accurate such teacher-generated information is, the format does tend to engage a large number of teachers in careers work. Where such use of teachers is made, the process also tends to reduce the polarization between subject matter teachers and careers teachers or school counselors which is sometimes observed in America. One implication for America of the British experience is the importance of counselors deliberately involving teachers in those guidance activities in which they have a contribution to make. As a function of the introduction of career education in America, counselors are more involved than ever in collaborative relationships with other school staff. It would appear that such a trend should be strongly encouraged and, indeed, expanded.

12. School counselors experience some conflict regardless of prior background. The ambivalence from teachers with which school counselors are often met in America seems to be shared in Britain. In America, there has been a historical debate about whether school counselors should come only from the ranks of teachers and whether they should be assigned to a part-time teaching/counseling role. While the teacher-counselor split in America has been largely resolved in favor of full-time school counselors, the debate about the most appropriate background, including teaching experience prerequisites, for counselors continues.

The British experience suggests that even when school counselors come solely from the ranks of teachers role conflict occurs. In short, it appears that any time a new specialist of any sort is introduced into the school some subtle or direct realignment of responsibilities ensues among those who have been traditionally employed. In some instances, these realignments of responsibilities are seen as implied threats of lack of total competence in one's role or as the precursors of new directions in instruction which may cause apprehension. Thus, the result seems to be that school counselors must be trained to anticipate and to accept some role conflict, to communicate their skills and intent clearly to their various publics, and to develop competence. These elements, rather than whether or not a counselor has been a teacher, seem to be of major importance in reducing inevitable role conflict and freeing counselors to perform effectively.

APPENDIX

Personal Interviews

Miss Catherine Avent, Careers Guidance Inspector, Inner London Education Authority

Mr. Anthony Corder, Senior Careers Officer, Cambridge Local Education Association

Miss Brenda Dockray, Senior Lecturer in Education, College of St. Hild and St. Bede, University of Durham

Mr. Jeff Engel, Director of Studies, Guidance and Counselling, Edge Hill College

Dr. Ben Hartop, Director of Appointments Service, University of Durham

Mr. Peter Heaviside, Senior Tutor, Careers Guidance Course, North East London Polytechnic

Mr. Ray Heppel, Careers Teacher, Bottingsham Village College and President, National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers

Dr. Barrie Hopson, Director, Vocational Guidance Research Unit, University of Leeds

Mr. Hans Hoxter, Head, Centre for Studies in Counselling, North East London Polytechnic and President, International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling

Mrs. Francesca Innskipp, Senior Tutor, School Counsellor Course, North East London Polytechnic

Miss Hazel Jones, Senior Tutor, Vocational Guidance Course, North East London Polytechnic

Mr. W. G. Law, Senior Fellow, National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling, Cambridge

Mr. Eric Lord, Her Majesty's Inspector in Guidance

Mr. John Miller, Senior Lecturer in Education, Dundee College of Education, Scotland

Miss Osborn, Headmistress, Stevenage Girls School

Mr. Rodney Rose, Career and Occupational Information Centre, London

Mr. B. Singh, National Institute of Industrial Psychology, London

Mr. John Storey, School Council Career Education Project, Impington Village College

Miss Clare Watkins, Information Officer, Cambridge Careers Centre

Mr. A. G. Watts, Executive Head and Senior Fellow, National Institute of Careers Education and Counselling, Cambridge

Courses Attended

Constructing Career Education Curriculum, Kingston Teachers Centre, July 8, 1976

Guidance Philosophy, King's College, Cambridge, July 14, 1976

NICEC Orientation, Queens Education Association, London, June 4, 1976

Occupational Information, Peterborough Teachers Centre, June 12, 1976

Presentations Made

Careers Education. Workshop at College of St. Hild and St. Bede, University of Durham, June 16-17, 1976. Thirty careers teachers, school counsellors, and careers officers in attendance. Personal discussions conducted with several participants from the North of England.

Problems in careers guidance. Lecture at Burwell House, Burwell. June 22, 1976. Twenty-five careers officers in attendance. Personal discussions conducted with several participants.

Decision-Making in counseling. Centre for Studies in Counselling, North East London Polytechnic. Personal discussions conducted with several participants. July 12, 1976.